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ABSTRACT

The first article in this issue is a response by Dieter Mindt to articles in the January, 1974, issue on the language laboratory versus the portable cassette tape recorder, in which it is argued that although the cassette recorder has many uses it cannot replace all the facilities offered by the stationary language laboratory. James R. Nord presents an argument for the use of language laboratories primarily for listening and reading skills. The remainder of the issue is devoted to bilingual education. These articles deal with the following topics; (1) bilingual education and the immigrant (editorial comment), (2) a survey of background information on bilingual education (E. C. Condon), (3) the need for pretesting in bilingual education (R. M. Preston), (4) cultural characteristics in the bilingual student (C. Sueiro-Rose), (5) the written English communicative competence of one group of Chicanos (B. L. DuBois), (6) the SWRL English language and concepts program for Spanish-Speaking children, 1971-1972 (H. Molina), (7) the use of PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations in the teaching of German reading, English as a second language and bilingual education (P. Grundlehner), and (8) the establishment of an English to Speakers of Other Languages program at an American community college (H. Aron). The newsletter concludes with a list of books, reports, periodicals recently received on the subjects of modern languages and linguistics. (LG)

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A NEWSLETTER
FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY
AND LANGUAGE LEARNING SYSTEMS

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S Y S T E M

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Contents

DIETER MINDT:	Full-Fledged Language Laboratories vs. Portable Cassette Tape Recorders	1
JAMES R. NORD:	Language Laboratories: A Place for Students to Shut Up and Listen	4
M.P.HAGIWARA:	Review: L. and G. Taggart (eds), Laboratoires de langues: orientations nouvelles	7
Special section:	Bilingual Education	
Comment:	Bilingual Education and the Immigrant	14
ELIANE C. CONDON:	Bilingual Education	16
RICHARD M. PRESTON:	A Need for Preliminary Assessment in Bilingual Education	33
CARMEN SUEIRO-ROSS:	Cultural Characteristics in Bilingual Learners	39
BETTY LOU DUBOIS:	Written English Communicative Competence of UTEP Chicanos: A Preliminary Report	49
HUBERTO MOLINA:	The SWRL English Language and Concepts Program for Spanish-Speaking Children: 1971-1972 Tryout	57
PHILIP GRUNDLEHNER:	PLATO: German Reading, English as a Second Language, and Bilingual Education	69
HELEN ARON:	Problems and Suggested Solutions in the Establishment of an English to Speakers of Other Languages Program at an American Community College	77
BOOKS AND PERIODICALS RECEIVED		81

Dieter Mindt

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Full-Fledged Language Laboratories vs. Portable Cassette Tape Recorders

In System 1 (1974) John R. Allen takes up the case against the conventional language laboratory.[1] He argues that the conventional language laboratory (1) is too expensive, (2) has not improved language teaching overwhelmingly, (3) makes ineffectual use of student time, and (4) creates an oppressive atmosphere. Allen proposes portable inexpensive cassette tape recorders which can be used anywhere at any time and which many students already possess for private use.

Lars Erik Blomquist gives some very important counter-arguments[2] and concludes that the conventional language laboratory is by no means outdated. He argues in favour of the reel-to-reel laboratory. This argument, however, seems to be misplaced in one respect. The question is not whether the reel-to-reel laboratory is preferable to the portable cassette recorder, but the issue is whether the stationary language laboratory (irrespective of whether the student positions are fitted with reel-to-reel tape decks or cassette tape recorders) can be dispensed with in favour of the portable cassette recorder.

To decide this issue one central question must be asked at the very beginning: what are the functions of the conventional language laboratory and the portable cassette recorder with regard to the requirements of language teaching and learning? A full-fledged language laboratory offers the following working facilities:

(1) presentation of audio material (e.g. for listening-comprehension exercises)
(2) audio-active work
(3) audio-active-comparative work
(4) monitoring and communication between teacher and student via intercom in any working phase.

The inexpensive portable cassette recorder proposed by Allen can fulfil only one of these tasks, viz. the presentation of audio-material. Neither audio-active work nor the recording of the students' performance for the purpose of comparing it with the given model is possible. Due to the absence of monitoring and intercom facilities the teacher cannot correct the student, which is especially important at the early stages of language learning when the student's ability to discriminate the relevant features of the foreign language in its spoken form is still underdeveloped.

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1) John R. Allen, "The Case Against the Conventional Language Laboratory," System 1 (1974), 10 - 13.

2) Lars Erik Blomquist, "Reel-to-Reel Labs Outdated?" System 1 (1974), 14 - 16.

Allen suggests that the student who feels the need to record his answers during a drill should borrow or buy a second recorder. This would mean in the first place that the argument of inexpensiveness is no longer valid. In the second place work with a second recorder is extremely clumsy and ineffective. Working with standard recorders the student who wants to repeat and correct an answer has to push the following buttons in a fixed order: (a) presentation machine (master track): stop - rewind - playback (b) recording machine (student track): stop - rewind - record/playback simultaneously. Furthermore the timing must be very exact in order to ensure that stimulus (master track) and student answer (student track) do not clash. In the conventional language laboratory these functions are reduced to only one which means that the student can fully concentrate his attention on the difficulty of learning and is not distracted by the handling of technical equipment not devised for this purpose.

Allen does his best to play down the possibility of making use of portable cassette recorders with separate master and student tracks. These machines offer the facilities of the AAC laboratory with the exception of monitoring and intercom. The cost of such machines with sufficient durability is, however, at least one third of a student position in a conventional laboratory. Whereas the student position in a conventional langauge laboratory may be used by up to ten or more students per day, one portable cassette recorder is normally available for one student only, if the student is really supposed to take the recorder home or to a place where he can find a more conducive atmosphere. A close comparison would certainly yield the fact that the expenses for conventional language laboratories would be considerably lower than for portable cassette recorders with full AAC facilities used in this way.

Even with such AAC cassette recorders very important functions of the stationary language laboratory, viz. the monitoring and intercom facilities, are still missing. There are stages in language learning where the learner has not yet mastered the techniques of individual learning in the language laboratory or is not able to discriminate foreign phonemes satisfactorily. Working on his own without the possibility of being helped by the teacher would lead to the conditioning of mistakes which have already proved to be hard to eradicate in later remedial work.

Allen's proposals apply mainly to university level. Similar arguments for schools have been put forward by Schiffler.[1] Apart from the fact that school children are much more dependent on the help of a qualified instructor via monitoring facilities and intercom than an adult learner, one further factor has to be taken into account.

The use of cassette recorders by school children can contribute to exacercerbating the drawbacks that already exist for school children with parents of lower social standing. Very often these children do not have a

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1) Ludger Schiffler, "Über die Sinnlosigkeit des Sprachlabors in der heutigen Form", Blickpunkt Schulbuch 14 (1972), 34 - 37.

separate room for themselves, but are forced to share a room with their brothers and sisters or even with the adults in the family. Their conditions of learning are accordingly far worse than those of children with parents of better social standing. The use of the portable cassette recorder with school children can therefore result in exactly the contrary of what is intended to be the general objective of school instruction, viz. the attenuation of differences in social stratification.

To sum up: The portable cassette recorder cannot replace the stationary language laboratory because it does not offer all the facilities of a full-fledged AAC laboratory. On the other hand the portable recorder can play an important role with certain groups of learners and at certain stages of language instruction. The well-motivated advanced adult learner who has mastered the techniques of individual learning can make very effective use of the cassette recorder in addition to a conventional language laboratory. Stationary language laboratories and portable cassette recorders are therefore not mutually exclusive alternatives but complementary media in language learning.

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REPLY

Dieter Mindt has successfully steered a course between the Scylla and Charybdis proposed by Lars Erik Blomquist and myself earlier. An interest in technology, however, should not blind us to the goal of teaching languages effectively by whatever is the best method. Of the four major points in my summary, the second is the most important: the conventional language lab has not improved language teaching to any great extent. That being so, Mindt's statement that a cassette system cannot do all that a complete lab can do is somewhat beside the point. The major question is whether it can do the only functions a conventional language lab has been shown to do effectively: present audio material and allow students to work interactively with that material. Since a cassette system does that and allows the student much more flexibility in planning when and where he can work with that material, the arguments against a cassette system should rest more upon Mindt's suggestion that cassettes may " [exaggerate] the drawbacks that already exist for school children with parents of lower social standing". I would not agree with such an assertion but feel it is a stronger argument against cassettes than their lack of flexibility.

John R. Allen
University of Manitoba

James R. Nord

Language Laboratories: A Place for Students to Shut Up and Listen

For years the language lab was praised as the panacea for all language learning or condemned as the last cell of solitary on the way to death by boredom. The language lab like much of modern educational technology took on an anthropomurphic quality in the eyes of many. The language lab can do this, or the language lab can do that, or the language lab cannot do this or that. Slowly many people are beginning to recognize the language lab as an inanimate, inert tool, which must be used by people, rather than a living machine which uses and abuses people. Slowly people are beginning to recognize that the tools can be used to inspire, or used to bore, but it is the people and the way they use it, not the technology itself which is to be praised or condemned. As this recognition spreads, there are being raised some serious questions as to which purposes the language lab should be used for. People are starting to ask how can I use it to inspire my students? How have I been using it to bore them?

This is a plea to consider some arguments for using the language laboratory primarily for listening and reading skills, the "receptive" skills rather than for speaking skills. This is a request to consider the language lab as a place to tell your students to "shut up and listen".

Recognizing the immediate reaction to such a blunt statement, I beg indulgence as you listen to the reasoning.

Psychologically, language has two primary functions: communication of thought which is interpersonal language, and organization of thought which is intra-personal, or thinking in the language. Interpersonal language is often separated into two functional areas: receptive and expressive language.

The expressive language, speaking and writing, is primarily interactive and interpersonal. Oration and written publication are generally an advanced form of expressive language. Receptive language listening and reading, on the other hand, tend to be non-interactive, more intra-personal, more related to private thinking than to public communication. Listening in a dialogue is actually a small percentage of one's daily listening habit pattern. With radio, television, lecture formats and even large group discussions, we tend to listen privately and in a non-interactive fashion.

Consider now the role of the human learner in a language lab from a psychological point of view. His whole psychological frame tells him that speaking is interpersonal and interactive, yet he is boxed in, separated, isolated from his fellow human beings, and talking to himself aloud, a state many people associate with mental illness.

Listening and/or reading on the other hand are normally private, isolated activities associated with mediated presentations to which one reacts internally, thoughtfully. Audio libraries are gaining, not losing in popularity. Students enjoy listening in isolation booths, not only to music, but dramatic readings of plays or poetry, recordings of historical moments from the early days of radio, etc.

The audio-lingual methodology proposed an emphasis on the audio aspect of language. The principles set down by Brooks prescribe the sequence as Listening preceding Speaking. The name audio-lingual implies the same sequence. Yet in practice, the lingual has dominated the audio, both in class, and in the language laboratory. In most of the materials designed for the language laboratory, the primary purpose of the listening was for mimicry repetition, it was as if the audio came in the ear, bypassed the brain and passed out the mouth as the lingual mimicry and/or transformation drill phrase. Recent research is beginning to show that such early emphasis on speaking without meaningful understanding is not only inefficient, but possibly detrimental to learning. It certainly bored the student!

Yet the capacity of many language laboratories to allow students to listen-mimic, and playback for comparison, is a tantalizing technological wonder. The vast volumes of recorded tapes which demand oral responses in the form of transformations, pattern slot filling, etc. are too expensive to leave on the shelf. The result is they continue to be used and continue to bore students. But must we be servants of our technology, or can we be masters?

The dentist does not use his drill to make a hole in every single tooth, just because it has such a unique and efficient capacity for doing so. The auto mechanic does not use his wonderful tools to take apart an engine, just because it has a knock in it. The best way for a doctor to lose the confidence of his patients is to get a reputation for being a knife-happy surgeon, i.e. one who likes to exercise his tools and skills to their capacity, regardless of the real need of the patient, or the possible alternative approaches to meet those needs.

The language teacher who uses the languages laboratory in all its capacity may be analogous to the knife-happy surgeon and the drill-happy dentist. What that often leads to is a complete rejection of the tool, regardless of need.

From this analysis, does it not make sense to try to figure out how to use the laboratory more imaginatively to teach receptive skills such as listening and reading, and reduce the emphasis and focus of the laboratory with respect to speaking, particularly in parrot mimicry without meaning, without an audience?

How can the language lab be used to gain more listening skills? New tools, new technology is now available to concentrate on listening as a focal skill in the laboratory to make it an enjoyable learning experience--if we but use the tool in an inspirational way. Immediate feedback technology can be used to guide the students to correct, meaningful discrimination learning of a new audio sound pattern. Rate controlled technology can be used to condition the choice-reaction time from slow to rapid thus allowing all to maintain a meaningful experience in their listening drills. Auditory editing techniques can be used to present up to date immediate news items in an audio format for relevant listening very early in the program, thus increasing interest.

In some of our experiments we are coming around to the point that lis-

tening is the primary skill to be learned in the language laboratory. We are also discovering that reading and writing are also fitting into the laboratory schema. We are finding that speaking when it is allowed, but not forced, is reduced but not eliminated from the laboratory. It is removed to the classroom where there are people to listen to the speakers. With a delay in speaking and an emphasis on listening in the initial phases, there appear to be fewer errors on the part of the speakers. The training in listening to native speakers in the lab appears to build up a self-monitoring system in the students. Most students learn to detect errors in other student speakers rather than being influenced by them. The result is a language laboratory where the students shut up and listen, but a classroom where the talking abounds.

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[The next issue will contain an account of one such listening experiment: The Sens-it Cell. Ed.]

Review

Chatagnier, Louis J. and Gilbert Taggart, eds., Laboratoires de langues: orientations nouvelles. Montreal: Editions Aquila, 1971, Pp. 231.

Laboratoires de langues presents the texts of papers delivered at the Canadian Conference on Language Laboratories held at Sir George Williams University, Montreal, in 1970. It is divided into five parts: Introduction, Opening Statements of the Conference, Principles and Methods, World-Wide Survey of Laboratories, and Conclusion. The role of the laboratory has been one of the major points of controversy in foreign language instruction. In the United States, the laboratory was hailed as an application of modern technology in electronics to make the teaching of spoken language more efficient. Thanks largely to Title III of the National Defense Education Act, the number of language laboratories multiplied from 1958 to the mid 1960's. Since that time a general disenchantment with laboratories has developed, paralleling the present attitude of many teachers toward the "audio-lingual" method and the decline of enrollment in foreign languages in most schools. What has been the role of the laboratories? What new directions can be established? The organizers and participants of the Conference attempted to answer these questions. In order to show the divergent views and the resultant, somewhat confusing picture of the current state of affairs, a brief outline of each paper will be presented rather than a global summary of the entire book.

Part I, apparently prepared expressly for the publication of the papers, provides a very concise description of the status of the laboratory in foreign language instruction. Beginning with a brief explanation of various teaching methods, it discusses the nature and purposes of pattern drills in audio-lingual method as well as a brief history of various types of laboratories and their utilizations. It singles out some problems inherent in the audio-lingual method and the laboratory, such as the general absence of contents and the tendency to encourage "parroting" in the drills, the lack of accurate self-correction by students in the laboratory work, the questionable efficacy of monitoring, and so on. The solutions offered tend to be rather vague--for example, the possible application of transformational grammar, "contextualization" of drills with visual cues, and testing in the laboratory. These are not of immediate use to most readers.

Part II consists of three statements of welcome and a brief bilingual paper, Language Laboratories: New Directions by MM. Chatagnier and Taggart. The title is somewhat misleading: the paper reaffirms the place of the laboratory and the importance of full laboratory utilization. While it explores some of the causes for the inefficient use of the laboratory and predicts that new theories of learning will affect the laboratory method, it fails to give any concrete answers for the improvement of the existing system.

Part III is the main focus of the Conference, consisting of fourteen

papers and subdivided into five sections entitled Language Laboratory in Perspective, Psychology of Language Laboratory Learning, Methodology of Laboratory Learning, Technology of Laboratory Learning, and Language Laboratory--New Directions. The first section begins with 1950 Revisited by Elton Hocking, one of the foremost authorities in the field. He reiterates his past criticisms of research and surveys such as the Keating Report and the Pennsylvania Project that "proved" the ineffectiveness of laboratories. He then analyzes causes for the decline of foreign language study and the stagnation of the laboratories in the United States. Much space is devoted to a rather gloomy picture of current foreign language programs, and the few suggestions found toward the end including a better training of specialists, adjustment of the program to today's youth, insistence on better quality of equipment, are generally too sketchy. Pierre Léon in his Laboratoires de langue: rétrospectives et persepctives points out that some of the problems that plagued the earliest laboratories are still existent today, while reaffirming the role of oral pattern drills, auditory discrimination, and the integration of the classroom and laboratory materials.

The second section presents two papers, The Psychologist and Language Learning by William L. Gardiner and The Language Laboratory: Other Alternatives? by Wallace E. Lambert. Gardiner offers his views as a psychologist, advocating the creation of situations simulating those in which a child acquires his first language. The readers who are familiar with the recent past and present research in psycholinguistics will undoubtedly find the paper a little naive and of little value insofar as the improvement of language programs are concerned. Lambert states that the audio-lingual method has had little empirical or theoretical evidence for justification and that some experiments have shown an insignificant role played by the laboratory. His personal recommendations consists of replacing the rigid laboratory with a more flexible system of take-home cassette recorders, shifting the emphasis from a native-like control of speech to cultural elements, searching for an age level prior to secondary school instruction where foreign languages are more readily acquired, and investigating personal techniques utilized by successful language learners. The paper is rather devastating for those who are convinced of the utility of laboratories; it nevertheless gives an occasion to reflect and reassess the past instructional objectives and strategies.

The third section consists of four papers. Louis J. Chatagnier in his Techno-linguistique: principes pédagogiques et conditions techniques enumerates the failure of administrators and laboratory directors to follow certain prerequisites before acquiring the equipment. He then discusses the evolution of the audio-lingual method with a view toward new "psycholinguistic eclecticism" balancing the theories of behaviorism and gestaltism, the roles of the teacher and machines, and others. He concludes with an explanation of different laboratory systems to suit his concept of various phases and levels of language instruction. While the paper offers interesting suggestions for the specific roles of the teacher and the laboratory in lesson presentation, the general curriculum proposed by the author does not appear very practical. It is "classic" in that the students progress from the oral-aural phase to written language, and the "descriptive, anthropological, comparative, contemporary, and historical" culture is reserved to the last phases. Individualization is hinted as a possibility. There are no

"tracks", performance-oriented objectives, or provisions to permit students to enter the program at a midpoint. The idea of sequential curriculum planning is pushed to an extreme, so that by the time the student has reached the collegial cycle, the main goals are only written language with "culture, civilization, and literature." There is no mention of how such a curriculum is financially and especially administratively possible.

A Realistic Methodology for the Rational Use of Language Laboratories by F. André Paquette appears to be more idealistic than realistic. He mentions the advantages of the laboratory and stresses the establishment of very precise instructional objectives and procedures by the teacher, including consideration of factors such as time allowed for assimilation, perseverance, aptitude, general intelligence, and methodology of lesson presentation. He then summarizes a view which suggests the replacement of traditional school curricula--especially in the elementary schools--with four different instructional "modes" ranging from individualized self-instruction to group dialogues and discussions of abstract ideas. His own uncertainty as to how the foreign language program might fit into these modes results in rather nebulous, though thought-provoking, suggestions for the improvement of language teaching and in particular for the utilization of laboratories.

Some Aspects of Listening Comprehension by Paul Pimsleur emphasizes the active aspect of listening comprehension. The author mentions various processes such as filtering of extraneous elements and noises, probable segmentation of utterances into phrase-structure units and "matching" of sentences with the internal grammar and contextual knowledge of the listener, that lead to short or long-term retention of sentences. He then describes an interesting experiment involving the auditory memory--rather than comprehension as such -- of progressively long English and French sentences by students at different levels of language instruction, and recommends further investigation into other factors associated with listening comprehension and memory. The paper provides an example of Lambert's view that the laboratory offers many opportunities for interesting psycholinguistic experiments. The results of such research should prove useful to both language teachers and textbook writers. Le contrôle des acquisitions: procédé pédagogique de base by Gilbert Taggart deals with testing of listening and speaking proficiency in the laboratory. The problems of testing as well as the types of items treated by the author are somewhat conventional, already found in some standardized tests and methodology textbooks. The author rightly points out the shortcomings of giving contextually disparate sentences for "controlled-response" items. He suggests the possibility of providing contexts by "micro-situations" and furnishes an example. Though interesting, the ten sentences under one "situation" designed to elicit only a single type of response may prove to be rather unproductive and time-consuming.

Utilization of laboratory at different educational levels is the focus of section four. Frank M. Grittner in his High School Language Laboratory: Prerequisites for Effective Utilization treats the basic question of how to fit the laboratory into a language program. He feels that the determination of curriculum contents and teaching methods as well as appropriate teacher training in the use of laboratory materials will result in the scrupulous editing of existing tape programs and the production of additional materials that are appropriate for most students' needs and

motives. Based on his extensive experience as the Foreign Language Supervisor for the State of Wisconsin, he recommends a state-wide establishment of minimum specifications for equipment and a creation of operational manuals for teachers. He stresses the primacy of software over hardware in the utilization of laboratories and concludes with six questions considered the "minimum prerequisites for effective laboratory utilization." Although the article emphasizes the role of teachers, it does not seem to address any specific group of readers. Such ambiguity is typified in the concluding questions that are too abstract and extensive for average teachers, beyond the control of most laboratory directors--if there are any at the secondary-school level--and too technical for most school administrators.

The Language Laboratory at the Collegial Level by Edward Marxheimer examines the major reasons for the "fossilization" of laboratories. After a description of a rather enviable array of equipment and facilities available at the University of Alberta at Edmonston, he strongly recommends a restructuring of the traditional language curriculum and a better training of instructors and graduate assistants in order to permit the introduction of a wide range of audio-visual materials in all the courses. It is a dynamic article, based on what has been planned or implemented at a university, and offers inspiration to those who are convinced of a more active role for the laboratory. Another interesting article, The Language Laboratory at the University Level: The Learning Center, is presented by Gary Boyd of Center for Instructional Technology at Sir George Williams University. His view is not that of a foreign language specialist but rather of an "educational cybernetician," stressing the determination of specific laboratory equipment and system through an analysis of student characteristics and the skills and materials to be imparted. He suggests an inter-university exchange of instructional modules dealing with very specific grammar points and predicts that a multi-discipline learning center with audio-visual and computer terminals will be the key to future laboratory operations.

The last section is concerned with "new directions." The Language Laboratory of the Future by Robert F. Roeming begins with a series of assumptions about the individual differences among students, such as the rate and manner of learning, the proficiency level in different language skills, and the perception and utilization of language. Quite naturally, these assumptions lead to an indictment of the traditional group instruction mode, the audio-lingual method, and the past role of the laboratory. His recommendations include the establishment of immediate, tangible, and attainable objectives for students, more laboratory research aiming toward student and teacher behavior modifications, less adherence to textbooks, student input for the improvement of tape programs, and many others. The paper contains a great deal of criticism, but the suggestions for the melioration of language instruction do not appear to be addressed to any particular group and, as a result, they fail to have the impact they apparently were intended to create. The last paper, Cooperation by James W. Dodge, Executive Secretary of the National Association of Language Laboratory Directors, seems to address those responsible for the development and coordination of laboratories at the national level, such as the Canadian Association of Language Laboratory Directors and related organizations. His message is essentially an advice to his Canadian colleagues

not to repeat the mistakes made in the United States--lack of establishing minimum standards and specifications for the equipment, inadequate training of teachers, failure to integrate the laboratory into the curriculum, absence of effective tape programs, and so on.

Part IV is a little misleading: Although it is called a "World-Wide" survey, only eight nations are represented, and notably absent are countries where foreign languages are taught extensively such as Germany, Holland, Japan, and the U.S.S.R. Furthermore, some of the reports deal exclusively with a single educational institution rather than the laboratories throughout the country. The situations described by the eight speakers may be rapidly summarized as follows. In Argentina, the laboratory is still in its infancy, its development hampered by the lack of funds for the acquisition of good equipment and the training of teachers. The report from Belgium primarily concerns the description of the laboratory system at the Centre Universitaire de l'Etat at Mons as utilized in a four-year program for interpreters, planned and designed through the cooperation of several institutions. The province of Quebec reports a successful series of seminars for teachers and laboratory directors on matters such as pedagogy, use of equipment, preparation of materials, audio-visual aids, management of the laboratory, and concludes with a description of the facilities at Laval University. In Denmark, as elsewhere, there is a paucity of material for advanced-level courses compared with the relative abundance of materials for the beginning levels. The speaker also describes an extensive, systematic practice in translation and simultaneous interpretation. The report from Paris deals with English programs at the University level primarily for future teachers. Although the semi-autonomous status of most universities since 1968 precludes any definitive statements about the general status of laboratories, the educators are still faced with a lack of sufficiently systematic research in applied linguistics and the development of suitable instructional materials. A short report from Senegal deals with the important role played by various audio-visual, television and linguistics centers for the alphabetization and propagation of the common native language and points out the problems of personnel training as well as the durability and maintenance of equipment. The report from Sweden is primarily concerned with a successful effort by Language Learning Laboratory Project to develop comfortable and pleasant laboratories and to produce individualized audio-visual instructional materials at the university level. The last report is from the United Kingdom. Most of the problems described are familiar to those concerned with laboratories in Canada and the United States: lack of proper laboratory personnel and teacher training, obstacles created by the traditional college and university language programs, relative scarcity of materials for advanced courses, and others.

Finally, Part V is a succinct bilingual conclusion pointing out the major questions and problems raised during the Conference. It strongly recommends the establishment of a precise definition of the role of the laboratory and to produce materials specially designed to fulfill such a role.

What, then, are the "new directions" for the language laboratory? We have seen several books and dozens of articles appear in the past decade regarding the place of the laboratory in foreign language instruction. Tout est dit, as Léon quotes from la Bruyère at the outset of his

paper. Those of us who are familiar with at least the theory of the laboratory know its main pedagogical advantages. We are also aware that it has never really delivered what it promised. Some commercial concerns as well as methodologists touted it as a product of space-age technology. Many school administrators were led to believe that it would result in the saving of manpower and a guarantee of orcl-aural proficiency for students. As Dodge so aptly put it, these conditions created in many schools a classic "cart before the horse" situation. In the majority of cases the teachers were "given" the laboratories without proper training, most foreign language curricula were not ready to integrate the laboratory completely, and in many instances the tapes merely duplicated the mechanical manipulative drills found in the textbook. The reader should not be surprised, then, by the great number of critical comments found in this book.

This reviewer has visited scores of public schools in his state for curriculum reviews. He has found that in most instances his evaluation of the laboratory facilities and utilization--or the lack thereof--can be applied to every school with little alternation. Typically the teachers say that the equipment is not durable or cannot be maintained due to budgetary restrictions, the sound quality of the machines or tapes is poor, the students "fool around" and often damage the equipment, the drills are dull and monotonous, the teacher's pronunciation is as good as that of the models on tape, and so on. These comments imply directly or indirectly a need for better equipment, more varied and interesting tape programs, and above all the training of teachers to explore the full potential of the language laboratory. As Grittner so aptly states, "A knowledgeable teacher can adapt good materials to almost any equipment."

What does one learn from the book? Or, to put it in a better perspective, whom does the book address? Therein lies perhaps one of the weaknesses of the book. It is certainly too technical for school administrators, many of whom--at least in the United States--do not know any foreign languages. As for the laboratory directors, they cannot improve the existing system on their own because the laboratory does not exist in a vacuum. A great number often find themselves caught between unwilling administrators and teachers, with little power to improve the curriculum or teaching directly. As for the teachers, many need special training in the use of the laboratory, let alone the rigorous task of editing the available tape programs and creating their own materials as advocated by some speakers. Most authors of textbooks do not pay sufficient attention to the tape program. At times their best intentions are thwarted by the publishers whose primary concern is marketing--a book must appeal to schools that have discarded the laboratory and, naturally, the greatest sales potentials lie in the beginning rather than advanced-level courses. As for language methodologists, most tend to "preach," that is, advocate ideas but seldom attempting to interpret them in terms of specific reality for the untrained and overworked teachers. In short, the book is addressed to too many groups of readers, to each inadequately.

Most of the problems associated with the laboratory may be divided into two kinds. On the one hand, there must be a continual technological development of audio-visual hardware and an exploration of its purpose

in foreign languages. On the other hand there is a need both to strengthen the current, "standard" type of laboratory in terms of producing effective software and to create better management and utilization of the facilities. It would have been desirable for the Conference to issue a set--or several sets--of general as well as specific recommendations addressed separately to administrators, laboratory directors, teachers, and authors of textbooks. Assigning priorities to such recommendations would have been impossible; but the establishment of resolutions based on the desiderata expressed or implied in nearly all the papers would have rendered the book more useful to the readers.

The language laboratory has evolved in the past decade from a classroom with a tape recorder to a special room with individual booths and a central console, and then to an electronic classroom. Particularly at the college and university level, it will probably evolve toward a multidiscipline, multi-media learning center. In that sense, reports from successful operations and concrete plans for the future as offered by Marxheimer and Boyd are more revealing and inspiring than some others that berate the profession for its failures and yet give only fragementary suggestions for improvement. The Conference seems to have been a fact-finding meeting. On the whole, despite its conclusion that it has marked a "turning point" in the history of laboratory utilization, we are left with a rather vague concept of what the laboratory should be in the future language program. The book provides an opportunity to reassess the current situation. As for the establishment of new directions, it falls one step short of achieving its goal.

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COMMENT

Bilingual Education and the Immigrant

The phenomenon of bilingualism as such has been a subject of ever-growing interest to linguists, psychologists and educationalists throughout this century. In a world where some 3,000 languages are spoken but where only five or so have international currency, it is obvious that the problems of second language learning will loom large. A study of "natural" childhood bilingualism, which is much more widespread than one might suppose, might therefore offer valuable lessons for the language teacher in the basically monolingual society.

Recently, however, the subject has attracted governmental attention in several countries, and the main reason has been the post-war wave of immigrant workers to the richer Western countries, coupled with a growing concern for the provision of equal educational opportunities for all children. The problems of, for example, the Swedish child obliged to take English lessons in school and the child of a Turkish immigrant in a Swedish-language social context are in many respects essentially different. The attitude in most receiver countries until recently was that the sooner the child learned the new language, the better, its native or home language being no concern of the adopted country.

Research has increasingly revealed the dangers of this negligence of the parent language and the deprivation it can lead to. Nowhere is it assumed that the average monolingual child can learn its native language adequately without school instruction. Yet the immigrant child is expected to cope with two languages, each missing an essential dimension. It seems clear, also, that the home language is the most important for the child's emotional development and security, but it will never have the opportunity to progress in it beyond the level of its parents, even it even achieves that. And the mothers in most Turkish immigrant families, for instance, are illiterates.

The result is all too frequently children who on the face of it are bilingual, and can function adequately on a superficial level, but who lack depth in both languages, who are linguistically - and therefore culturally - rootless. This can lead to a crisis of identity and a sense of social estrangement. Moreover, the child who never learns to think abstractly in its first language is unlikely to do so in its second. The apparent gift of bilingualism can be a source of serious deprivation.

This fact was recognized as long ago as 1953 by Unesco, which recommended that initial training in reading and writing should be in the language of the home. Our contributors in the following special section who, owing to a delay in promised contributions from elsewhere, are all from the United States, are mainly concerned with various American attempts to meet this recommendation. The United Kingdom has for some years conducted primary school classes for immigrant groups in their own languages. And in 1973 the Swedish authorities officially adopted a national policy of bilingual education for immigrant children.

A declaration of intent is important, but the reality is often different. In the first place, such instruction is usually only possible in areas

where immigrants from the same background are concentrated. And if they come from Yugoslavia, for instance, which local variant should be chosen? A Slovene child will hardly benefit from being obliged to master Serbian as well as Swedish.

Finding competent teachers can also be a serious problem, which, at least in Sweden, is also compounded by their doubtful status and future prospects - a far greater readiness to recognize foreign qualifications is required here. For many immigrants in this country, bilingual education is no more than two hours per week of instruction in their native language, which is clearly inadequate. Other experiments are being conducted, in Gothenburg with a three-year Finnish class with extra teaching in Swedish, in Stockholm with a class half Swedish, half Turkish, where some subjects are studied separately in the native language, some together - gymnastics, drawing, mathematics, English. There are two form-masters, one Swedish, one Turkish. Experiments are also being conducted at the nursery school level - clearly the earlier such native - language training begins, the better.

The importance of this aspect of bilingualism has won belated acceptance in some countries, none at all in others. There is as yet no definitive system of bilingual education for immigrant groups - or indeed for any language teaching. But we hope the views and experience expressed in the following pages will be followed by more reports in future years (not merely from the United States!) revealing growing willingness and ability to tackle a serious educational and social problem.

Norman F. Davies

Note - contributions on the topic submitted too late for this issue will be printed in the October number.

Eliana C. Condon

Bilingual Education

"Today, bilingualism represents a definite asset for an individual both in the realm of public life--career opportunities, travel--and in the area of personal development--expanded intellectual faculties, enrichment of personality." Jermore Bruner

A SURVEY OF BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Bilingual Education in the World

Bilingual education has been in existence for many decades in various parts of the world, where two official languages are recognized within a country (such as Belgium, or Canada), where two or more idioms are used by different groups within a single geographical entity (such as India, or China), or where English has become a lingua franca for developing nations in their struggle for technological development (such as Nigeria, or Sierra Leone).

In the United States, however, bilingual instruction represents a fairly recent innovation which may be said to have arisen from a growing concern on the part of society for the difficulties experienced by non-English and partial bilingual speakers in attempting to function effectively within the educational, social and economic environments of a dominant middle-class, English-speaking community. The lack of equal opportunity afforded to minority groups in our society is well-known to educators, and its extent sufficiently illustrated in government statistics on educational, employment, and income trends related to ethnic background to preclude the necessity of reviewing these facts within the present document. Suffice it to say that, in the state of New Jersey alone for instance, the drop-out rate of Puerto Rican children is four times that of other youngsters, 68% of Puerto Rican adults work in low income jobs (unskilled labor) or approximately three times the percentage of white workers, and the median family income for Puerto Ricans is 44% lower than that of Anglo families.[1] Similar figures are available for all minority groups within, as well as without the New Jersey area. All of them lead to the inevitable conclusion that American schools have not succeeded in meeting the needs of a certain portion of our population which may be called "a-typical"--i.e. steeped in a cultural tradition and a communication system divergent from those of the dominant middle-class community, exemplified in the educational system.

Some measure of the nation's concern for an equalization of educational opportunities for all school children may be derived from the availability of federal funding in support of bilingual-bicultural programs at the elementary and secondary levels; some of the major sources of financial help were derived from Title I, Title III, and Title VII (Bilingual Education Act; not to be confused with the new Title VII).

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1) Socio-Economic Profile of N.J.'s Puerto Ricans, Hector S. Rodriguez, Puerto Rican Congress of New Jersey, Inc., Trenton, N.J. 1970.

At. the present time, however, despite the growing need for such governmental support, federal funding of bilingual education is no longer as readily available to school districts faced with an increasing non-English-speaking population as it has been in the past. The general downward trend of Washington expenditures on education nowadays seems to indicate a shift toward the decentralization from nation-wide to state and local authorities of responsibilities for the diversification of educational sequences designed to meet the needs of an equally diversified student population. At the present time, one of the states which has taken leadership in this area is Massachusetts where the Legislature has enacted a Bilingual Education Transitional law providing for mandatory and state-funded programs (three years) in any school attended by a minimum number of non-English and partial bilingual speakers. A number of educational, ethnic, and commercial organizations are now interested in the establishment of a similar law in the state of New Jersey, on the assumption that such a measure would not only eliminate the waste of brain-power represented by ethnic minority drop-outs, but also reduce the long-range cumulative costs of grade retention, rehabilitation and welfare for these youngsters.

The Need for Bilingual Education in the United States

The label of "a nation of immigrants" is justifiably applied to the United States, a country where a continuous stream of aliens are welcomed into the native-born population at an increasing annual rate, now reaching some five and a half million people (as opposed to three and a half million in 1968).[1]

Most of the foreign-born individuals who enter this country have limited English-speaking abilities. At the present time, one of the largest groups of residents in the U. S. A. whose native tongue is other than English, consists of Spanish speakers--approximately nine million people at the present time--whose educational, occupational, and economic statuses fall far below those of other groups.[2] As far as the state of New Jersey is concerned, the total population of 7,168,143 individuals includes approximately two million people of various linguistic backgrounds, among whom over 600,000 were born in another country, and 250,000 are Spanish speakers.[3] The extent to which individuals with limited English skills are deprived of equal opportunities (academic, social, and economic) is exemplified in the Appendix which describes the demographic characteristics of Puerto Ricans in New Jersey.[4] These local statistics are substantiated on a nation-wide basis by those recorded in the Congressional Hearings which led to the

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1) Table IV, U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Services, 1972 Annual Report.

2) The Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, March 1972 Population Report; Tables 88-95.

3) New Jersey Office of Statistics, 1972-73 Statistics on Ethnic Groups.

4) Hector S. Rodriguez, "Socio-Economic Profile of N.J.'s Puerto Ricans", Puerto Rican Congress of N.J., Inc., 1972.

establishment of Title VII, ESEA, for the support of Bilingual Education.

The consistently negative outcomes associated with linguistic inadequacies in the context of American schools are ample justification for the institution of bilingual education as an instructional alternative for youngsters who are unable to function effectively in regular classes and who are, consequently, deprived of an equal right to learn.

A Definition of Bilingual Education

Basically, bilingual education consists of instruction in two languages, one of which is English as a Second Language, and the other is the native language of the pupils. It also includes a cultural component, whereby students are taught about the history and culture of their own civilization, as well as those of their adopted country--the U. S. A.

The Official Status of Bilingual Education in the United States

1. Financial Aid. Bilingual education received official government recognition with the enactment of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968--Title VII ESEA, and the subsequent yearly appropriation of funds to support it. In addition to the financial resources provided by Title VII, other funds have also been made available to the schools for the implementation of bilingual instruction through the following federal programs:

1. Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act
2. Title III, Elementary and Secondary Education Act
3. Title IX, Ethnic Heritage Program, ESEA
4. Education Professions Development Act (now under National Center for Improvement of Educational Systems)
5. Economic Opportunity Act--Headstart and Follow Through Programs
6. Indian Education Act.

2. Legal Support. Up to the present, the position of federal courts on the constitutionality of mandatory bilingual education appears undecided, despite various appeals based upon the 14th Amendment (Due Process and Equal Protection Clauses), the Civil Rights Act (Title VI), and the 1st Amendment (Guarantee of Free Speech).

Under the circumstances, it would seem that the burden of equalizing learning opportunities for children with limited English ability is to be delegated to state legislatures. Following the lead of Massachussetts which passed a Transitional Bilingual Act in 1971, California, New Mexico, New York, Texas and Washington have now enacted legislation in support of some form of bilingual education. Other states, such as Louisiana and New Jersey are now considering legislative and financial means of alleviating the educational problems of their partial bilingual population.

From an overall standpoint, however, the official outlook on bilingual

education seems nebulous at the present time. And, a realistic estimate of its impact upon federal and state agencies would rate it as far below that created by the segregation issue, despite the essential similarity of their goal--the guarantee of equal opportunity and participation in the life of the American community for all individuals, regardless of their background.

The Target Audience of Bilingual Education in the U. S. A.

The advantages of bilingualism and biculturalism in the twentieth-century world of international (and, who knows, perhaps imminent interstellar) travel and accelerated changes are self-evident. Thus, the opportunity to acquire two languages and alternate patterns of thought, attitude and behavior should be offered to all children in this country.

Practically speaking, however, the inclusion of all pupils in bilingual education classes is not feasible at the present time for a variety of reasons, ranging from budgetary and scheduling problems to identification of qualified personnel.

Federally funded programs (Title I, VII and others) do require the participation of English speakers, on a percentage basis equal to their proportion in the overall student population of schools in which bilingual education is offered. In most cases, however, enrolment in these programs is compulsory for children with limited English ability, and voluntary for others--a compromise which does meet the linguistic needs of non-English and partial bilingual speakers, and yet does not deprive others of the right to take advantage of an educational innovation if they so desire.

For the purpose of clarification, definitions of terms commonly used in bilingual education are listed below:

Bilingual Learner: a child who speaks two languages, though not necessarily with equal proficiency. The native language may be English, or another language.

Bilingual Teacher: a teacher who speaks two languages, though not necessarily with equal proficiency. The native language may be English, or another language.

Bilingual Program: a program of instruction which utilizes two languages--English and the native idiom of the students.

Bilingualism: the ability to function in two languages, though not necessarily with equal proficiency.

Biculturalism: the ability to function in two cultures, though not necessarily with equal proficiency.

Balanced Bilingualism: the ability to function equally effectively

in two languages.

Balanced Biculturalism: the ability to function equally effectively in two cultures.

The Aims of Bilingual Education

In its ideal form, the purpose of bilingual education is to produce balanced bilingualism-biculturalism within the learners, that is to say, the ability to function equally well in two linguistic and cultural contexts (American and native). However, within the United States today, the practical overall aim of this educational innovation is to equalize learning opportunities for non-English and partial bilingual speakers. On a more specific basis, major objectives may be stated as follows:

1. To enable children to achieve fluency and literacy in both languages.

2. To enable children to function in both cultures (American and native).

3. To enable children to progress in academic subjects at the same rate as other children.

4. To enable children to develop a positive self-concept and pride in their dual linguistic and cultural heritages.

An extension of bilingual education concerns for children of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds reaches their parents as well, for most existing programs emphasize strongly community participation in the planning, development, and evaluation of instructional activities. This particular component in bilingual education serves the practical purpose of providing common grounds of understanding between native and non-native members of the community, by enabling them to exchange views on the general, as well as specialized, needs of all children within the school system.

From the standpoint of public school interests and responsibilities, bilingual education includes basically the same goals as those stated for a regular educational sequence; its only variation from the common program is that it seeks to achieve similar aims through different means. At the same time, a significant implication of bilingual education, on a national basis, is that it fosters cultural pluralism in a multi-ethnic society, through maintenance of the language-culture heritages of various groups--a concept which is consistent with the democratic principle of choice, central to the American way of life--rather than cultural conformity and compulsory Americanization--principles now rejected in a free society, and associated with the myth of the "melting pot" tradition.

Approaches to Bilingual Education

There are two ways of interpreting bilingual instruction in the context of public school education: as a self-sustained, continous program

(true bilingual education), or as a temporary measure to ease the transfer of non-English or bilingual speakers into the regular school curriculum (transitional bilingual education).

1. True bilingual education is a total program of bilingual learning from the pre-school to the adult education levels, in which parallel subject matter offerings, given in the native and other language, are made available to all individuals in various institutions.
2. Transitional bilingual education is a partial program of bilingual learning at any designated instructional level, whereby the students are offered intensive training in English as a Second Language while receiving subject matter instruction in their native language, until such time as they are able to function adequately in a normal classroom situation.

The most prevalent philosophy of bilingual education implemented in programs throughout the United States, is the second one described in the previous paragraph-transitional bilingual education. Its popularity is dictated by purely pragmatic reasons, such as local policy, community wishes, or problems in scheduling, materials acquisition, and qualified personnel selection. It is, in fact, the approach selected in the state of Massachusetts, as reflected in its recently enacted "Transitional Law for Bilingual Education," and as implemented now throughout its public school system.

Instructional Staff in Bilingual Education

Bilingual instruction may be organized in several ways, each of which has proved to be equally effective in response to local conditions. Among several variations in staff deployment, four major categories may be readily identified:

1. One Class - One Teacher

   The teacher is a balanced bilingual-bicultural individual; he is, therefore, able to teach in either language. He is trained in native and second language methodologies.

   The class may consist of all non-English or partial bilingual speakers; or may include up to 50% English speaking students.

2. Two Classes - Two Teachers (as a team)

   The teaching team includes an English-dominant teacher (the English as a Second Language specialist) and an Other-Language-dominant teacher (the native language of the children). Each teacher spends half of his time with each class, and teaches strictly in his native language. Both are trained in language methodology. (The ESL specialist is not necessarily required to know the language spoken by the children.)

   The composition of both classes may be the same as the one described above: mixed or bilingual. Another possibility is to match one bilingual class with one English-speaking class.

3. One Class - One Teacher and a Part-time Specialist

   The teacher is dominant in the language spoken by the children, and provides only native language instruction. Time is set aside once or twice during the day for English as a Second Language instruction (15 minutes to two hours daily, according to the age of the pupils) which is handled by the ESL specialist (English-dominant, or simply native speaker of English without knowledge of another language). Both are trained in language methodology.

   The class usually consists of non-English or partial bilingual speakers.

4. One Class - One Teacher and One Aide

   The teacher is dominant in one language, and the aide in the other; both are trained in language methodology. The teacher is responsible for the planning of instruction in both languages, and for its implementation in the classroom through teaching, and through supervision of work assigned to the aide.

In all cases, the children are not entirely segregated from the rest of the pupils, with whom they mingle for various, less verbal activities, such as art, music, home economics, industrial arts, physical education, lunch and recreation. Quite often also, mathematics is set aside for "mixed" instruction in English, on the assumption that the nearly universal nature of mathematics symbols will enable pupils with limited English ability to follow instruction adequately.

Bilingual Instruction in Subject Matter Other than Language Arts

Language Arts instruction is bilingual; the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing are taught in both the native and English as a Second Languages. The latter is taught by means of second language techniques.

Other subject matters may be taught in either language or in both, in accordance with instructional decisions made at the local level. The decision to teach a particular topic in a specific idiom is usually made on the basis of common sense, and takes into consideration both the nature of the subject matter and the children's proficiency in each language. For example:

Social Studies is preferably taught in the native language, in view of its highly verbal and abstract content.

Mathematics is often taught in English, in view of the commonality of its code to both languages and the concreteness of its contents.

History and Culture is usually taught bilingually, since it is based upon a contrast of two ways of living.

Another source of variations in the realm of bilingual education may be found in the amount of time assigned to learning in each language.

The proportion of instruction in one idiom as opposed to the other may range from 5% up to 50% of the total time. Furthermore, this proportion may be modified in the course of the year, as the students become increasingly more proficient in English as a Second Language.

Bilingual Instruction - Format and Content of Lessons

The format of bilingual instruction tends to vary from one program to another, in accordance with local preference and conditions. At the present time, research findings are insufficient to indicate which type of bilingual learning is most likely to maximize academic achievement. Three of the most common instructional combinations are as follows:

1. Teaching separate lessons, with different contents, in each language.
2. Teaching the same contents in each language, at different times of the day.
3. Teaching in both languages concurrently. This does not mean instruction through translation, but rather instruction of a brief thought unit in one language, followed by its enrichment and reinforcement in the second language, and culminating in its verification by means of both languages (during which time, each student is expected to reply in the language in which the question has been asked).

   In the event that an abstract concept cannot be grasped easily by the pupils in the second language, the native idiom is also used to clarify the problem and to eliminate time wasting.

In a general manner, the content of bilingual instruction matches that of regular classes at the appropriate grade level. Specifically speaking, however, the range and sequencing of curriculum items must be somewhat modified to meet the specialized needs of students who are taught in two languages. These necessary changes affect the following areas:

1. Vocabulary Range and Sequence:

   a. English Vocabulary: Words are selected on the basis of usefulness and high frequency in oral communication.

      Vocabulary sequencing is determined by the degree of concreteness, simplicity, and regularity of the items.

   b. Native Language Vocabulary: Words are selected on the basis of children's experiences, as well as their proficiency level.

2. Grammatical Structures: They are subject (in both languages) to the same restrictions as those applied to vocabulary learning.

3. Pronunciation: In both languages, interference items are

stressed particularly to eliminate traces of a "foreign accent."

4. Oral and Written Skills: All four skills are taught in both languages but, in the case of English as a Second Language, they are taught in the invariable sequence of listening, speaking, reading and writing (each successive skill, thus, reinforcing the preceding one).

5. Evaluation: Due to the nature of bilingual instruction, evaluation requires special attention. Testing recommendations are described in a later paragraph.

The Role of ESL in Bilingual Education

English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction is NOT synonymous to bilingual instruction; but it is an integral and very important component of the latter, since every individual in this country must eventually be able to function primarily in an English-speaking community, not only academically but socially and economically as well. ESL is a highly specialized subject matter which requires skilled handling; it cannot be taught by a regular elementary school or English high school teacher without appropriate training. Its aim is to teach "total communication" in English--a command of oral and written skills, as well as all nonverbal auxiliary skills (thought, action and reaction patterns, gestures and vocal markers)--in order to enable the learners to function effectively and automatically in American society.

Within the structure of bilingual education, the role of ESL instruction is to provide the pupils with a solid ground in standard English skills by utilizing and expanding the content of subject matter taught in the native language or bilingually and supplementing it with concepts included in the regular Language Arts program. The achievement of such a goal, thus, presupposes a careful selection and organization of all instructional activities, as well as team planning, in order to insure the coordination and proper reinforcement of all learning experiences. An example of a lesson integrating ESL with science in bilingual education would be as follows:

Science Topic: The Water Cycle

Step 1: Native Language Medium

The new concepts are taught initially in the native language, and the lesson is taught out of a textbook by the bilingual teacher.

Step 2: Second Language Medium (ESL)

The ESL specialist prepares a controlled narrative (restricted vocabulary and grammatical structures) in English and duplicates it for the students. He teaches the lesson, using second language techniques.

Step 3: Bilingual Activity

Verification and reinforcement of learning through questions and answers (oral and written) in both languages, with the stipulation that each answer must be given in the same language as that of the question.

Since ESL specialists cannot be expected to develop all of the materials required for their classes, they usually select one of the many linguistically sequenced readers available on the market today to serve them as a guide in the planning of ESL activities. These texts are, then, used as frameworks of language reference into which concepts included in the regular readers may be integrated in a manner consistent with the principles of second language teaching.

History and Culture in Bilingual Education

Language cannot be taught in a vacuum. Bilingual instruction, therefore, includes a "history and culture" component intended to prevent the alienation of the learners from the mainstream of American life, by teaching them how to function effectively in different cultural situations, and by fostering within them a positive self-concept associated with their own ethnic heritage.

This component includes two major types of activities: first, social studies instruction on both the histories of the United States and the native country of the pupils; and second, cultural instruction on comparisons and contrasts between the American and the native ways of living. While the former data is taught in a formal manner, the latter is presented as a combination of theoretical information, reinforced with practical exercises which are designed to teach the students the skills of matching appropriate behavioral sequences (thought-attitude-speech-action) with selected situations. In this manner, the learners are exposed to both the historical and the everyday perspectives of life in those cultural areas which are meaningful to them. The extent to which this objective is accomplished depends, of course, upon the quality of and interest of teacher.

The overall purpose of a course on "history and culture" in bilingual education is to replace the traditional "Americanization" or laissez-faire "melting-pot" systems of yesterday with one designed to provide the students with a context of bicultural skills and knowledges in which to establish meaningful linguistic experiences (English and the native idiom). The expected outcome of such instruction is balanced (or nearly so) bilingualism and biculturalism, as well as tolerance toward cultural pluralism in a united country enriched, rather than divided, by its ethnic, linguistic, and other variations.

Instructional Personnel in Bilingual Education

As a rule, most educational innovations entail pre-service and in-service training for both professionals and para-professionals. In the case at hand, there already exists in most states a reservoir of qualified personnel, who are experienced in bilingual education (teachers who are already participating in existing programs), or who are

ready to fulfill the requirements of bilingual instruction with a minimum amount of preparation (ESL and foreign language specialists who are already trained in second language teaching techiniques). On a long-range term, additional staff will soon be readily available among bilingual speakers who are now engaged in undergraduate and graduate study, as well as among para-professionals, who are presently working in classrooms and are planning to enter certified degree programs in local colleges and universities. As a matter of fact, in view of the current downward trend in the employment statistics of the teaching profession, the present staffing shortage in bilingual education is not likely to endure. By creating new demands for specialized personnel, this educational innovation now offers new avenues of employment to foreign language teachers, whose positions are being threatened by steadily decreasing enrolements in the schools. Thus, its advent may not only result in anticipated educational benefits to linguistically disadvantaged students, but also in unexpected teaching opportunities for job-seeking certified instructors.

The ideal bilingual teacher is, of course, an individual who possesses balanced knowledges and skills in two languages and cultural contexts (English and the native language of the students) and who has completed a bilingual-bicultural training program leading to certification. Unfortunately, such highly qualified instructors are not always readily available, and bilingual positions are often filled by others who are dominant in one or the other language. In the latter case, an equally effective system of instruction may be achieved by forming a teaching team of two specialists--one for ESL, and one for the other language. And, as common sense dictates, each language is taught by the native-speaking member of the team. As a last alternative, and wherever scheduling or budget does not permit team teaching or additional staffing, the regular classroom teacher is trained to become an ESL specialist, and his work is complemented by a visiting native language specialist.

Teacher Preparation in Bilingual Education

One of the many misconceptions attendant upon bilingual education is that a bilingual speaker who holds any kind of teacher certification is a priori qualified to handle a bilingual class. Nothing could be more erroneous, and the results of such indiscriminate bilingual practices may be as disastrous as those incurred by the hiring of a Frenchman (with an emergency certificate), for instance, to teach his native language, on the assumption that his undeniable language proficiency will offset his professional deficiency in educational techniques.

In any program where one or more languages happen to be the media, as well as the subject matter of instruction, both pre- and in-service training are of primary importance. This principle has, in fact, just been officially recognized by the Office of Education Title VII administrators who are now preparing new guidelines with a mandatory teacher preparation component in funded bilingual programs.

Regardless of the type of program implemented by a school system, the

cardinal rules for staffing requirements (in addition to bilingual-bicultural proficiency) are: 1) selection based upon evidence of specialized training; 2) pre-service orientation to define the role and objectives of bilingual education, and its relationship to the total curriculum; and 3) in-service workshops throughout the academic year to facilitate planning, materials development or adaptation, and evaluation.

Basic teacher preparation in bilingual education includes the following:

1. Language Preparation

   Native or near-native proficiency in the language or languages to be taught (English and/or the other language) in all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing).

   Knowledge of the nature of the native and/or second language (standard form), in terms of:

   a. Melody of connected speech.
   b. Grammatical signals of meaning (not traditional, but functional grammar).
   c. High frequency vocabulary.
   d. Language auxiliaries (gestures and vocal markers).

   Knowledge of interference points between standard English and the other language in all four skills.

2. Culture-History Preparation

   Awareness of cultural differences and of their influences on human interactions.

   Knowledge of American history, that of the other country, and the relationships existing between them (comparisons, contrasts, and mutual influences).

   Native or near-native knowledges and skills in the cultural contexts of the language or languages to be taught (American and/or the other culture), in terms of:

   a. Overall cultural orientations (the average man).
   b. National characteristics.
   c. Total communication (language and other media in cultural context).
   d. Patterns of human behavior related to basic needs.

   Knowledge of interference points between both cultures in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains.

3. Professional Preparation

   Knowledge and supervised practice of contextual native language and/or second language teaching techniques.

   Experience in bilingual-bicultural curriculum planning, materials development and adaptation.

Familiarity with existing bilingual evaluation programs--their strengths, weaknesses, and applicability to the local situation.

Knowledge of the psychology of intercultural relations, as it applies to the schools, minority groups, and the community at large.

Instructional Materials in Bilingual Education

There are two crucial problems associated with the selection and use of bilingual materials at all educational levels (pre-kindergarten-adult):

1. In view of the recency of bilingual educational concerns in this country, the choice of parallel bilingual materials is still considerably restricted. In addition, those few books which are now offered on the market tend to be ineffective, for they rely strictly upon literal translations which overlook differences in stylistics, concepts and logic associated with each language and culture.

2. The Inadequacy of Monolingual Texts. Since the purpose of bilingual education is to insure that bilingual children learn the academic content of the regular school curriculum along with two linguistic media of expression, the usefulness of monolingual subject matter texts, in English and other languages (published in the U. S. A. and elsewhere) is rather limited in bilingual education, without extensive adaptation.

Evaluation in Bilingual Education

Testing represents another major area of difficulty in bilingual programs which are, by nature, oriented toward both humanistic and behavioristic objectives. While it is possible to measure objectively certain types of bilingual-bicultural behaviors (pronunciation accuracy, vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, fluency of bilingual-bicultural response, use of gestures, language dominance, cultural knowledge, and the like), it is quite difficult to assess such elusive factors as changes in attitudes, perceptions, self-concepts or understandings which are not open to direct investigation but must be evaluated through inferences and personal judgement. Thus testing in bilingual education must be rated at best as presently inadequate in terms of currently acceptable standards of accountability, since existing tools of measurement lean heavily toward the measurement of cognitive aspects of bilingual learning, while mostly neglecting its affective and psychomotor factors.

Additional obstacles to the appropriate assessment of bilingual achievement may be found in the cultural irrelevance of most available standardized tests (both verbal and nonverbal) to the target population, and in the absence of culturally differentiated norms for the various bilingual groups found in the United States.

Under the circumstances, the utilization of such inadequate measuring devices tends to be more deleterious than useful to both the school system

and its student population. Many programs, therefore, resort either to the development of local norms based upon the identification of "problem" items in standardized tests, or to that of locally prepared pre-post evaluative devices based upon the school curriculum.

Whether standardized or local tests are used in bilingual education, a comprehensive model evaluation program includes the following:

1. Subject matter assessment, given in the language in which it is taught and, preferably, by the instructor who teaches it.

2. Language arts assessment in both languages (oral and written), preferably given by the instructor who teaches them.

3. History and cultural knowledge evaluation, given in the language in which it is taught and, preferably, by the instructor who teaches it.

4. Bilingual-bicultural skills evaluation in role-playing situations, verified by an impartial bicultural observer.

5. Human relations evaluation in daily classroom interaction, inferred by the classroom teacher on the basis of structured observation reports.

Misinformation and Problems in Bilingual Education

In many instances, the very real benefits of bilingual education to indidividuals who are members of a multi-ethnic society (such as American society) have been overlooked as a result of misinformation born of ignorance, prejudice, or misguided governmental policies. In order to set the record straight on the nature of bilingual education, several of the major areas subject to common misunderstandings are listed below:

1. What Bilingual Education Is NOT

   a. Bilingual (rather than monolingual English) learning is NOT an un-American activity, but an alternative to educational failure for children with limited English knowledge.

   b. A bilingual program is NOT a watered down curriculum in which to "unload" non-English and partial bilingual speakers who do not "fit" into the regular classes; it simply parallels the academic program offered to other students qualitatively and quantitively.

   c. A bilingual program is NOT a program strictly designed for Spanish speakers: it serves any language group whose children possess limited English ability.

   d. A bilingual program is NOT an ESL program, but one including an ESL component, as well as native language instruction.

   e. The ESL component in a bilingual program is NOT synonymous with "remedial English" or "remedial reading", but consists of a high specialized form of English instruction.

f. The "history and culture" component in a bilingual program is NOT an expression of minority group militancy, nor is it a brain-washing program of forced assimilation, but instead an attempt to facilitate intergroup relations through knowledge and understanding.

2. What Unconscious Factors Undermine Bilingual Education

a. The middle-class orientation of school administrators and teachers who expect non-English and partial bilingual learners to measure up to culturally irrelevant standards.

b. The alienation of bilingual parents and students from school values, which leads them to suspect ecuational policies, including those related to bilingual education.

c. The preconceived and erroneous notions of most American teachers and bilingual students about each other's motives and expectations.

d. The human tendency to misinterpret individual behaviors on the basis of cultural stereotypes.

e. The negative feelings associated with foreign accents and "foreign" ways.

f. The hidden resentment of second and third generation immigrants whose parents "made it" without "preferential" treatment.

3. What Negative Effects of Bilingual Education are Provided by Federal Funding

a. Bilingual education has become associated with "poverty" programs, rather than with "enrichment" programs.

b. Bilingual education has become synonymous with "compensatory", rather than with "quality" education.

c. Bilingual education has become interpreted as a "transitory" form of instruction, rather than a "maintenance" program leading to balanced bilingualism and biculturalism.

d. Bilingual education has become "suspect," as a possible form of segregation, rather than one of instructional individualization.

e. Bilingual education has become identified with "preferential" hiring practices (restricted to minority personnel), rather than with truly "equal" employment opportunity.

f. Bilingual education has become accepted as a costly educational experiment, rather than one of long-term economy (through the elimination of costly grade retention, remedial instruction, and drop-out prevention).

One last source of misinformation concerning bilingual instruction is derived from the very area which should provide unimpeachable data on the advantages, or disadvantages of this educational innovation--research. Except for the most recent investigations, study findings on the effects of bilingualism tend to be invalidated by their neglect of such meaningful variables as socio-economic status, ethnic background, sex, age, and the like. Unfortunately, the biases of such reports are seldom considered by those who point to the inconclusiveness of collected information and choose to overlook the statistical evidence of educational failure related to inadequacies in the "official" media of expression and instruction--the American English language.

On the plus side, however, the documentation now being gathered in this country as an outgrowth of bilingual programs points toward the establishment of reliable data, obtained under controlled conditions. A recent article, published in the October, 1973 issue of the Foreign Language Annals reveals that children who study a second language in elementary school develop a cognitive structure which is more diversified than that of monolingual pupils.[1] Under the circumstances, it would seem that the acquisition of bilingual skills at an early age may provide society with at least a partial answer to the problems of culture shock. For, in the twentieth-century world of accelerated changes, an individual's ability to think creatively outside of conventional patterns may well constitute his greatest asset in meeting the challenges of a changing environment.

The Future of Bilingual Education

If any conclusion may be drawn at the present time concerning the status of bilingual education in the United States, it is essentially that its potential has not yet been achieved. However, there is no foreseeable reason why the promise of equal learning opportunity underlying the philosophy of this educational innovation cannot be fulfilled within this decade, through the united efforts of dedicated teachers, administrators, and community leaders. Unless the schools succeed in offering alternatives to present standards of academic excellence, which will be relevant to their multi-ethnic population, the reality of cultural pluralism in this "nation of immigrants" remains questionable, for it is only through mutual understanding--linguistic and other--that the true spirit of American democracy will be freed from the schackles of prejudice, discrimination, and wasted manpower. And the first step toward the actualization of this ideal will be taken, when bilingual instruction is awarded its rightful status in the public schools as a legitimate and desirable form of education for all children in the United States.

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1) Richard G. Landry, "The Enhancement of Figural Creativity Through Second Language Learning at the Elementary School Level," Foreign Language Annals, Vol. VII, no. 1, October, 1973, pp. 111-115.

Appendix

Demographic Characteristics of Puerto Ricans in New Jersey

The 1970 Census lists the following data about the Puerto Rican community in New Jersey:

- Puerto Rican families are larger, younger, are overwhelming renters of dwelling space, and live in overcrowded circumstances to a greater extent than is true of any other statistical group in New Jersey:
- median family income of Anglo-whites and 17% less than that of black people;
- per capita income for Puerto Ricans is 57% less than that of whites and 18% less than that of blacks;
- one out of every seven Puerto Rican families lives in extreme poverty; one out of every four families lives in poverty; one out of every three families is either impoverished or borderline poor; and seven out of every ten families are working poor;
- one out of every four Puerto Rican families is eligible for public assistance; whereas one out of every five families is receiving public assistance;
- 3.2% of employed Puerto Ricans are self-employed; whereas 4.2% of blacks and 10.8% of whites are self-employed;
- 8.1% of Puerto Ricans receive "other income" (interest, dividends, pensions, etc.); whereas 12.2% of blacks and 42.3% of whites are similarly situated;
- 68% of employed Puerto Ricans work in low income-unskilled jobs;
- 24% of Puerto Rican mothers of pre-school children are working to supplement husband's income;
- 28% of Puerto Rican males 16 to 21 years old and out of school are unemployed;
- Puerto Ricans are dropping out of school at a rate four times that of white and twice that of blacks;
- occupationally Puerto Ricans will require 120 years at the present growth rate (1.7% per decade) to achieve the present professional-managerial status realized by whites but only if the latter's occupational mobility stops in its tracks.

Richard M. Preston

A Need for Preliminary Assessment in Bilingual Education

SUMMARY OF THE TEST RESULTS BASED ON SCORES FROM THE COOPERATIVE INTER-AMERICAN TEST OF READING

In an effort to determine the need for a bilingual program at the high school in which I was teaching, I tested the entire student enrollment in the Spanish Department in both Spanish and in English. The Spanish Department had approximately 600 students involved in Spanish classes ranging from Spanish I to Spanish IV, with four full-time Spanish teachers instructing.

I felt that the sampling of the student body would serve as a random representation of the school's ethnic balance, which was at the time of the testing effort approximately 56 percent Americans of Mexican descent. The intent was not to discover the speaking or the listening abilities of the students in the program, but to determine their reading level in both Spanish and in English. Since the reading ability of any given student, save those in special education programs, in high school is the main skill with which he performs his academic tasks, it would seem that this would receive prime consideration in developing a bilingual program in the secondary school.

The Cooperative Inter-American Test of Reading was selected as it has forms both in Spanish and in English. One can determine the discrepancy between the reader's reading skill in both languages. One can also determine the reading level of the testee in each idiom.

At the time of the decision to test the Spanish Department for their reading skills in the two languages, very little information was available in this area. One would often see newspaper articles about programs here and there, but with no information on what the program was based. Huge sums of federal and local money often accompanied these programs. One can only assume that many of the programs were based on the ethnic background of those that would participate in such a program. Little or no attention, it would seem, was paid to the needs, and more important the skills, of those potentially involved. Too often political leaders assume things that are in fact unfounded. These assumptions are rarely tested to ascertain their validity. What would a pupil do in a bilingual program that could not even read at a sixth grade level either in Spanish or English? Would the material of the course become pablum? To develop a bilingual program based solely on the ethnic content of an area, with no data to determine academic needs, is foolishness. A hispanic surname does not necessarily guarantee the skills requisite for such a proposed course of study.

At the secondary level, or any level of education, there is great need for information that can help determine needs, develop goals, and allow those participating in the exercise every opportunity to be successful. Without preassessment in proposed bilingual programs, there can be

little hope of success, because there will be little or no information to determine success or failure. There must be a program of pretesting that will shape the goals and ascertain the needs of the program, then a post-testing to point out success or failure.

Perhaps, at this point, a definition of bilingualism is necessary. Without going into a lengthy discussion, let it be said that bilingualism is the ability to function equally in the two languages in question. This ability to perform must include the four language arts: listening, speaking, reading and writing. By the time a student enters the secondary level of education he ought, though this is not necessarily so, as the reader will see, to have attained some degree of efficiency commensurate with the secondary level, i.e., a ninth grader reading at or near the ninth grade level.

Much was assumed prior to the testing program, but the results left little doubt as to the skills of those students that would be involved in a bilingual program at the secondary level. Many assumptions were found to be erroneous. The common belief that a person that carries a Spanish surname will also be skillful in, and knowledgeable of the language of his heritage, proved false.

Let the reader at this point see for himself some of the test results and perhaps glean some of his own interpretation from the statistics recorded herein.

Each Spanish section was scheduled to take the Intermediate Forms AS and AE (AS = Spanish and AE = English). The Intermediate Test has a Reading Level Range in Spanish from 4.0 - 8.0 with an area for determining the Reading Level for individuals that do not score at 4.0 or above. So, a Reading Level of 2.0 to 4.0 - 8.0 can be shown. The English Test has the same range as the Spanish in each section.

596 students were tested in Spanish and 541 were tested in English on the companion portion of the Inter-American Test. The discrepancy between the number of students tested is due to the fact that attendance for the English section did not equal that of the Spanish portion on any given day. A total of 1,137 tests were administered during the Spring semester, 1972.

The results of the test will be shown in several tables. Read them carefully.

TABLE I

N = 596 Form AS

Intermediate Test of Reading

Number of Students	Percentage	Reading Grade Level
157	25.9	-2.0
122	20.1	2.0
107	17.6	2.5
69	11.4	3.0
49	8.0	3.5
31	5.1	4.0
16	2.6	4.5
15	2.4	5.0
1	.2	5.5
11	1.8	6.0
1	.2	6.5
10	1.6	7.0
16	2.6	8.0+
596	99.5	

The results of the English portion of the tests were for all intents just the opposite to those of the Spanish Test, English being the language in which most students performed the best.

TABLE II

N = 541 Form AE

Intermediate Test of Reading

Number of Students	Percentage	Reading Grade Level
0	0	-2.0
4	.6	2.0
3	.5	2.5
7	1.1	3.0
22	3.7	3.5
35	5.9	4.0
52	8.8	4.5
36	6.1	5.0
34	5.8	5.5
50	8.5	6.0
2	.3	6.5
32	5.4	7.0
309	52.7	
541	99.4	

The results were further broken down as to Spanish surname students. Three hundred and sixty-eight Spanish surname scores were tabulated according to their scores on the two portions of the test. Three hundred and thirty-three (91.7%) read at a level below 6.0 grade level in Spanish, and thirty-two or 8.7% of total read at 6.0 or above in Spanish.

TABLE III

N = 368 Form AS

Intermediate Test of Reading

Number of Students	Percentage	Reading Grade Level
97	26.5	-2.0
52	14.2	2.0
56	15.3	2.5
41	11.2	3.0
34	9.3	3.5
29	7.9	4.0
14	3.8	4.5
13	3.5	5.0
0	0	5.5
8	2.2	6.0
0	0	6.5
10	2.7	7.0
0	0	7.5
14	3.8	8.0+
368	100.4	

The results of the English portion of the test for the Spanish surname students (N=349) indicate that 213 students (60%) read at 6.0 or above in English. One Hundred and thirty-nine students (39%) read below the sixth grade reading level in English.

TABLE IV

N = 349 Form AE

Intermediate Test of Reading

Number of Students	Percentage	Reading Grade Level
0	0	-2.0
3	.8	2.0
2	.6	2.5
6	1.7	3.0
15	4.3	3.5
25	7.2	4.0
39	11.1	4.5
22	6.3	5.0
24	6.8	5.5
37	10.6	6.0
1	.3	6.5
175	51.1	7.0+
349	100.8	

It would seem that the functional language in the third language art is English for the large majority of students in Spanish at Pioneer High School.

The modal score for all students taking the Spanish Form (AS) Intermediate Level was 2.5. The modal score for those taking the English Form (AE) Intermediate was 7.0 grade level. The discrenancy between the two modal scores was 4.5 grade levels. It would seem that this wide grade level discrepancy would not be conducive to a bilingual program.

Based on the information gained from the testing of the Spanish Department, one could conclude that the ability to read in Spanish and comprehend what was being read was not high. The first two language arts, listening and speaking, in Spanish were probably low also. Since the art of listening and speaking precede and give foundation to the last two language arts, reading and writing, perhaps the need of the minority student is not bilingual education at the secondary level, but a program of intensified English and Spanish, for, if the third language skill is low in both languages, what hope for success does the student have if he cannot adequately meet the challenge of assignments when he cannot read at a level that would allow success in either language.

There are thos who would say "teach these students English twenty-four hours a day until it is mastered", and concurrently emphasize Spanish in a regular Spanish section, not in a bilingual effort. English is the principle language used in the United States and perhaps educators are doing minority students a disfavor by teaching them anything that does not lead to the mastery of English' For it is English that will open the most doors for opportunities in an English speaking society.

The information in this paper only points in a specific direction. It does not provide answers to many questions, but it does at least provide a start - a point of view - that perhaps much time and money can be saved through a pretesting program that would determine needs as ascertained from test results. More important than the time and money, the students can be saved from failure because of an effort to see what their educational needs are, based on sound testing, rather than what the supposed needs are based on political and social whims.

As a result of the testing program, more emphasis has been placed on reading skills in the school involved in both languages rather than a bilingual program.

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Carmen Suetro-Ross

Cultural Characteristics in Bilingual Learners

A SOURCE OF CONFLICTS IN TEACHER-PUPIL INTERACTION

One of the most complex and misunderstood problems in bilingual education in the United States in that of cultural conflicts in classroom interaction. While it has been noted generally that differences in ethnic backgrounds between the teacher and the pupils tend to produce a negative effect on the learning process, still very little data has been gathered concerning the actual mechanism of cultural interference in bilingual instruction.

In an attempt to explore the possibilities of collecting some basic information on the subject, a mini-research project was initiated last year at Rutgers University, to identify tentatively variations existing in the behavioral patterns of Puerto Rican and other children in mainland schools, which might affect differentially their responses to the academic environment.[1] Preschool classes and primary grade levels were selected for this purpose, because they offered an opportunity to observe pupils during play activities, in which spontaneous behavior would be most likely to reveal possible cultural divergences between Spanish and other speakers.

Teachers who are involved in bilingual education at the elementary school level often point out that the initiation of a Puerto Rican child into school life is a much more traumatic experience than that undergone by the average youngster. Like other boys and girls, little Juan or María leaves the shelter of a familiar environment -- his home and family -- to enter an alien world full of strangers and strange things -- the school. Unlike them, however, he does not adapt readily to the new setting, for he suffers the additional shock of being unable to communicate in his own language with some of the teachers and his new playmates, and to behave in class in a manner which has been taught to him as normal and appropriate. Suddenly, then, the Puerto Rican child finds himself in a hostile environment, where he seems to be at odds with everything and everyone. At first, he attempts to cope with unfamiliar cues of behavior, but he soon learns that most of his past experiences have little or no meaning in the new environment. And, as he becomes increasingly confused and unhappy in the situation, he seeks refuge more and more in his own private world of silence and withdrawal, from which he emerges occasionally to rebel against enforced conformity. In so doing he only succeeds in reinforcing unconsciously the popularly held stereotype of the Spanish-speaking pupil in school -- shy, reticent, unstable, emotional and uncommunicative.

Experience has shown that the problem of school adjustment for such a

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1) In the State of New Jersey alone, there are some 250,000 Spanish-speaking children in school, most of whom are of Puerto Rican origin.

youngster seems somewhat lessened in classes handled by an adult who speaks his native language, and that it is greatly reduced when the teacher also happens to be a member of the same ethnic group. Yet, even in the latter case, difficulties arising from cultural conflicts cannot be entirely eliminated for these children, since they come inevitably into daily contact with individuals who do not share his cultural background and who expect them to conform to the norms of behavior of other students.

Under the circumstances, there seems to be a need for greater knowledge, on the part of native-born American teachers and administrators, concerning the characteristics of Puerto Rican pupils, if the latter are ever to be given a fair opportunity to function effectively in the academic environment which sets the stage for his future achievement in life, and which determines his place in the dominant society.

The following report, therefore, seeks to describe some of the most obviously discernible cultural characteristics of young Puerto Rican boys and girls (ages 4 to 8), as they were observed during play activities in local school systems.[1] In the course of data gathering, particular emphasis was placed upon the externalized personality traits of the observed pupils, and their attitudes toward spatio-temporal dimensions.

Classroom Observations

A total of thirty classroom visits, each lasting a minimum of one hour, were completed by two bilingual-bicultural observers of different ethnic backgrounds -- the researcher (Puerto Rican) and a specialist in cross-cultural studies (Belgian). These observations were conducted in classes at the pre-Kindergarten through Grade Three levels, in public schools located mostly in New Jersey and New York.

The composition of the classes which were visited ranged widely, from some consisting of nearly all Puerto Rican children, to others including varying proportions of white Anglo[2] and Black children, with a minority of Puerto Rican pupils.

The early grades (Pre-Kindergarten to Grade III) were selected for the study because it was assumed that children of this age level would still be relatively free of the negative attitudes and cultural conflicts which they would acquire later on as a result of partial acculturation, and which could be expected to mask or distort the salient aspects of their native modal personality.

In many cases, the class visited by the observers represented the Spanish child's first introduction to the American school, as well as his first encounter with American culture. Thus, it was hoped that some insight could be gained by the researchers into the initial psychological effects of, and responses to, the biculturation (in bilingual classes) or acculturation (in other classes) process.

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1) Schools which were visited included both bilingual and non-bilingual programs.

2) "Anglo" refers to a native-born white American individual.

In respect to instructional personnel, the cultural and linguistic background of home-room teachers was found to vary considerably from one school to another: some teachers were monolingual Anglos, others spoke Spanish as well as English, and the remainder were bilingual individuals born in a Spanish-speaking country. As a rule, however, most classes in the early grades (K-I) were handled by two adults -- the regular instructor, and a bilingual aide. This latter factor applied to all schools, whether they offered a bilingual program or not.

Limitations of the Study

While a total of sixty hours of participant observations (thirty hours carried out simultaneously by each of two specialists in crosscultural relations) could not, by any means, be regarded as a controlled experiment likely to yield irrefutable evidence, nevertheless, they afforded preliminary findings of sufficient significance to warrant a full-scale investigation (now in progress).

At the same time, the research method selected for this mini-study was found to possess one serious limitation in that it did not enable the observers to separate clearly "true" cultural patterns of behavior from those triggered within children, in response to the stress of a cross-cultural situation.

Within the confines of these limitations, the information derived from an analysis of the collected data was classified into three major categories (General Personality Traits, Attitudes toward Space, and Attitudes toward Time) which were, in turn, subdivided into several clusters of factors. These findings are outlined in the next section.

Personality Traits and Attitudes Observed in the Puerto Rican Child at Play

A. Individualism:

1. Prefers individual games, dislikes participating in group games and structured activities.
2. Resents regimentation of games.
3. Dislikes being interrupted when doing "his own thing".
4. Is generally a non-conformist, and occasionally can be rebellious, or stubborn about following directions.
5. Prefers playing games he knows best, rather than learning new ones (probably due to the language barrier).

B. Emotionalism:

1. Is very sensitive to any kind of criticism, or to brusque treatment -- either physical, or verbal -- on the playground; usually responds to it with an emotional outburst of crying.
2. Generally docile by nature, but is apt to react violently when upset at play.
3. Becomes involved in fights resulting from language misunderstandings.

4. Exhibits a low frustration level, with temper tantrums triggered by his inability to perform activities in a satisfactory manner.
5. Shows feelings of inferiority and insecurity evidenced by a reluctance to try new activities or to compete against others in group games (fatalism).
6. Expresses fear and anxiety, when forced to compete (facial expression and physical withdrawal).

(Some of the above emotional characteristics may be attributable to the severe maladjustment problems of these children; they may not be actually cultural characteristics, but rather culturally-conditioned responses to stress situations.)

C. Passiveness:

1. Prefers quiet games that are slow moving, rather than aggressive ones that are fast moving.
2. Does not respond to the "team spirit" of competition.
3. Is generally indifferent to group activities.
4. Seldom volunteers to do anything.
5. Is reluctant to ask for help.

D. Affectionate Nature:

1. Likes to help others, especially in independent play time.
2. Is generally personable and friendly to strangers.
3. Shows an eager desire to please his teacher and classmates.
4. Craves acceptance by others.
5. Is usually very generous about sharing his toys.
6. Is very sensitive and intuitive about the feelings of others.
7. Is very demonstrative with friends (girls can usually be seen kissing and hugging each other).

E. Impulsiveness:

1. If interested in a game or toy, shows great spontaneity and enthusiasm.
2. Is apt to become suddenly talkative and outgoing when thoroughly at home in a relaxed atmosphere, free of pressure.
3. Shows a lack of self-control and patience at times, blurting out a statement without waiting his turn.
4. Loses interest fast, and usually rushes from one activity to another, during free playtime.

F. Sense of Humor:

1. Enjoys comical situations, when depicted objectively (in cartoons, for instance).

2. Is unable to accept jokes made at the expense of other children (especially those pointing toward their shortcomings).
3. Resents being the object of laughter because of his inability to express himself adequately in English.

G. Sense of "Machismo" and "El Honor"

1. Shows a strongly developed sex identification at an early age (boys display "macho" behavior).
2. Does not play with children of the opposite sex.
3. Acknowledges readily male superiority (evidenced in types of indoor and outdoor games chosen by boys and girls).
4. Behaves "honorably" in games (seldom cheats).

Attitudes Toward Space as Reflected in Play Behavior

A. Proxemics:

1. Uses a close interaction distance in all activities; tends to "crowd" his playmates, and is able to function comfortably in close quarters.
2. Is very tactile-oriented; touching each other constantly (little girls like to play with each other's hair).
3. Usually pairs off with a playmate and is seldom seen alone.

B. Territoriality:

1. Space is not uniform.
2. Is possessive toward his "assigned space," resents anyone taking his place at the table.
3. Respects other people's space (rarely invades someone else's territory during independent playtime, retiring to an unused corner of the floor when in need of more room).
4. Does not see space as important unless it has not been assigned specifically (during active games, or when queuing in line).

Attitudes Toward Time as Reflected in Play Behavior

A. Leisure-Time Orientation:

1. Does not understand the time segmentation of class activities.
2. Is usually not prompt in starting or stopping play activities; resents being rushed.
3. Has difficulty in following scheduled activities.
4. Does not grasp readily the concepts of "taking one's turn," or "one at a time".

B. Importance of Time:

1. Does not see time as important; is apt to waste much of his playtime.
2. Varies time-span of play activities, according to momentary interest.
3. Does not accept time as a "healing" factor. Does not forget easily a child who has slighted him at playtime.
4. Is present-oriented (prefers to play familiar games; does not look forward to learning new ones).

Play Behavior Patterns of Preference in Playmates, Games and Toys

A. Choice of Playmates:

1. Prefers playing with other Puerto Rican children.
2. Restricts playmates to members of the same age.
3. Selects one, rather than two or more, "favorite" playmate.

B. Games Selection:

1. Prefers passive, rather than rough games.
2. Prefers individual, unstructured play activities, to participation in collective games directed by the teacher.
3. Prefers sedentary games, played at own table.
4. Indoors, prefers games involving imagination, creativity and self-expression (games involving music, dancing or make-believe are popular).
5. Outdoors, selects games "appropriate" to his sex: boys like to play ball games; girls sit on the sides, watching the boys at play, or pair off to jump rope or play skipping games.

C. Toys Selection:

1. Enjoys playing with toys that express his innate creativity (puzzles, for instance).
2. Likes dressing up (cowboys and Indians for boys) and playing "pretend" games (House, hospital, store, etc. for girls).
3. Seeks reassurance from toy or object brought from home (girls mostly). Seldom leaves it out of sight, and prefers carrying it around.

Interpretation of Findings and Conclusions

From an overall standpoint no perceptible divergences were noted by the researchers in the basic personality and attitudinal characteristics of young Puerto Rican children, in the classes which were visited, regardless of their composition or of their teacher's background.

On the other hand, some variations were observed between the general behavioral patterns of classes composed predominantly of Puerto Rican

pupils, and those in which they were in the minority. In the former all activities seemed to be carried out by the group more smoothly, with less discipline problems, and with greater interest and success than in the latter. In addition, differences were also discovered in the performance of learning experiences by the bilingual, as opposed to the non-bilingual classes at the same grade level. As a rule, the presence of a bilingual adult in the room seemed to create a relaxed atmosphere, to which youngsters responded readily with greater spontaneity, gregariousness and enthusiasm, thus fostering positive interactions with each other and with their teachers. The latter, in turn, appeared to be more "at ease" than their monolingual colleagues in such situations, and more able to communicate "empathetically" with the children without frequent recourse to disciplinary measures.

As the observers moved from the earlier grades to the second and third grade levels handled by American teachers, they became aware of a gradual, but steady, and clearly discernible shift in the behavior of Puerto Rican pupils, away from what may be characterized as the "natural" openness and spontaneity of young children, toward an "unnatural" sequence of lengthy periods of withdrawal, interrupted by unexpected emotional outbursts. This increased tendency toward introversion and "irrational" action was not found prominent in similar age groups taught by a bilingual instructor.

In terms of the Spanish-speaking youngsters, then, the above observations confirm the findings of a number of studies[1] which equate the educational experience of such children in the mainland American context, with a history of academic retardation and selfconcept destruction. At the same time, however, one cannot help but notice that many of these documents fail to take into consideration one of the major causes of cumulative learning deficits -- cultural conflicts occurring between Anglo instructors and Puerto Rican students, which lead to the deterioration of classroom interaction and consequently, interfere with the learning process. In most cases, the major assumption which researchers concerned with the educational problems of minority learners seem to take for granted is that both the American teachers and schools must be "scapegoated" for the academic failure of their atypical students on the basis of their inability to tailor instruction to the latters' needs. But is it really fair to condemn individuals or institutions for their incapacity to cope with a situation which they do not understand, without first providing them with the necessary tools of understanding?

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1) a. Raísner, A., P. Bolger and C. Sanguinetti, Science Instruction in Spanish for Pupils of Spanish Speaking Background, Cooperative Research Program 2370, U.S. Office of Education and Bureau of Educational Research, Board of Education, N. Y. 1967.

b. John, Vera and Vivian P. Horner, Early Childhood Bilingual Education, New York: Modern Language Association, 1971, pp. 178-187.

c. La Fontaine, Hernan, "Bilingual Education" in (Ed.) Francesco Cordasco, The Puerto Rican Experience, Totawa, N. J.: Littlefield Adams, 1972, p. 333, 336.

For the majority of native-born American educators, culturally-different learners do pose a perplexing communication challenge to their intelligence and ability as teachers and as individuals. Most of them find themselves completely frustrated and baffled by children whose "modal personality" defies understanding in terms of the dominant middle-class American culture -- gregarious one minute, and inhibited in the next; resigned now, then suddenly rebellious; energetic at one time, and indolent at another.

In order to appreciate fully the complexity and apparent contradictions of this personality, it is necessary to realize the extent to which Puerto Rican culture derives its general traits from the three main ethnic groups which constitute its heritage: Indian, Spanish, and Black.[1] One must also understand that the seventyodd years of exposure to American influences have left their indelible imprint on the life and character of people in the island.[2]

Unfortunately, as a rule, these facts are seldom known by the average Anglo teacher in mainland schools; and, when they are, they tend to be dissociated by him from all classroom experiences, mostly because their relevance to crosscultural interaction has never been pointed out to him. Consequently, the American instructor expects all the children in his group to behave like "typical" American youngsters, regardless of their respective upbringing or ethnic affiliation. And, when they do not conform to these standards, he cannot help but conclude that they are either unwilling (problem students) or unable (slow learners) to respond to classroom instruction which has proven successful with other students! In so doing, he initiates inadvertently the endless sequence of cultural conflicts and misunderstandings which translate the school experience into a nightmare of misery for the Puerto Rican youngster, and of frustration for his teachers. And yet, it would be most unrealistic to look for a different kind of behavior on the part of an educator who has himself never suffered from, nor been sensitized to, the devastating effects of culture shock or "misfitness".

Quite evidently, this intenable situation must be remedied and a logical point of departure for the eventual solution of these problems would be to provide educators with basic information concerning the behavioral characteristics of bilingual learners, along with the training facilities required to help them translate this knowledge into functional classroom procedures. In this respect, the present report offers a minor, however much needed, contribution to the body of practical cultural knowledge which must be essentially collected by specialists and made available to teachers, before the latter can be held accountable legitimately for their inability to relate to culturally different children. Indeed, the multi-faceted problem of crosscultural interaction in

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1) Batllé, Ana et al., The Puerto Rican: A Resource Unit for Teachers, New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1972, pp. 12-16.

2) Encyclopedia Americana article on Puerto Rico, Vol. 22, New York: American Corporation, 1971, p. 1976.

the academic context is so complex that its solution calls for an extensive range of research studies, training and instructional program design, materials development and field testing, which are likely to extend over a long period of time.

Meanwhile, a nucleus of useful facts may already be derived by interested educators from existing documents in the areas of anthropology, sociology and bilingual education. These data should be used to establish the context in which intercultural teacher-pupil relations are to be analyzed and defined. On the whole, it would seem that some of the Puerto Rican characteristics identified by researchers must be counted as liabilities, for an individual transplanted into the competitive world of dominant American culture, regardless of their intrinsic value in the native environment.

But it is particularly within the tight little island of academic life that externalized cultural differences, such as those inherent to the Puerto Rican character, come into open conflict with the values held by authority figures -- school personnel -- with disastrous results for the non-conforming student. In this respect, one of the most crucial problem areas affecting the relationships between a mainland American teacher and a Hispanic student is that of time, since it is conceptualized in a radically different manner by each culture, and since neither view is acceptable to the other group.

From a Hispanic standpoint, time has no intrinsic value other than that which it acquires by virtue of its being filled with human actions. In accordance with this notion, man lives each day as it comes, enjoying his interaction with other human beings spontaneously, but without planning ahead and without rushing from one activity to the next. This laissez-faire attitude toward time, which subordinates it to interpersonal relations, is diametrically opposed to the strictly segmented treatment of temporal matters held in American culture, where man is literally enslaved by the clock.

Translated into practical classroom terms, this divergence in time dimensions usually means that a Puerto Rican child finds himself perpetually out of step with the American teacher's expectations of punctuality. Thus, he is doomed to be exposed to the latter's wrath again and again -- for being late in entering the classroom, late in settling down to work, late in turning his assignments in, late in following directions, late in completing a test, and so on ad infinitum! Indeed, the cumulative image thus created in the mind of the teacher by these reiterated misdemeanors, is that of a recalcitrant pupil who just won't learn to behave in the "proper" manner! And for the culprit, who is culturally unequipped to comply with American requirements for time-stressed behavior, the endless reprimands become equated with a feeling of inadequacy, for they are voiced by an adult whom his parents have taught him to honor and respect.

In this manner, the "misbehaver" becomes a misfit who, once convinced of his worthlessness, seeks to safeguard his shattered ego with a protective shell of silence and withdrawal from which he emerges occasionally in an effort to rebel against his fate. The struggle eventually ends in an apparent status quo: the pupil continues to be "late", and the teacher dutifully administers a meaningless scolding which arouses no

response. The rules of scholastic protocol are, thus, satisfied, but at what price? -- Those of constant frustration for the instructor who has failed to reach the student, and of self-concept destruction for the latter who has learned he cannot function in the educational environment.

What makes this situation even more tragic is the fact that it can be predicted in a purely objective manner. As every educator knows, it is an undeniable fact that each child brings to school all the experiences of his home culture which he, then, attempts to adapt to the classroom context. The extent to which he succeeds in this endeavor depends, therefore, mainly upon the degree of compatibility existing between family patterns and teacher expectations. And, in the case of Puerto Rican children the traditional value orientations learned in the home are so clearly contradictory to those upheld in the academic environment that they must be considered dysfunctional in the learning process.

As the present study seems to indicate, one possible way of alleviating the culturally induced academic retardation and emotional difficulties of these pupils is to provide them with bilingual instruction or, at least, with a teacher sensitized to the problems of intercultural communication. But the solution is not an easy one to implement at the present time when neither skilled personnel, nor training programs, nor even reference materials are readily available on the market.

In a country, such as the United States, which has so often been called "a nation of immigrants", it is time that enlightened educators consider in depth and produce practical documentation on the psychological, social, and emotional barriers to learning which arise naturally from the interaction of culturally different individuals. For, without this necessary information, the most liberal-minded and dedicated teacher will continue to destroy unintentionally the future of every non-conforming child, by depriving him of a fighting chance to learn the basic academic skills needed to survive in the dominant society. And, without a guaranteed opportunity to acquire an education, these children will discover too late in life that the avenues of success open to most individuals in this country, will remain closed to him as a result of cultural circumstances over which neither he, nor his teachers, ever had any control.

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Betty Lou Dubois

Written English Communicative Competence of UTEP Chicanos: A Preliminary Report

At the second annual Southwest Areal Language and Linguistics Workshop (March, 1973),* Professor Jacob Ornstein, Codirector of the Southwest Multicultural Ethnic Study Center of the University of Texas at El Paso, reported on the first phase of a broadly conceived study of southwestern American linguistic minorities, i.e., nonEnglish speaking groups who are removed from the sources of power, whatever their numerical status. It is fitting that the study began with Chicanos at the University of Texas at El Paso, for that university enrolls a larger number than any other four-year institution in the country.

Professor Ornstein focused on the Sociolinguistic Background information Questionnaire administered to the students and on the data analysis. He also described briefly the samples of speech and writing, both in Spanish and English, which the Center collected. Almost parenthetically, he quoted remarks of some who had read the English essays -- English teachers, presumably -- to the effect that the papers weren't nearly as bad as expected, contained far fewer "mistakes" than the papers they saw routinely in class. I found the remarks intriguing and secured one partial and one complete stratified sample of the English essays, the basis for the present report.

Chicano is a term used, though often mispronounced /ʧikanow/, throughout the United States; System readers would perhaps like a clarification of the term. A Chicano is an American who identifies himself initially with the culture of the Spanish-speaking from the Mexican sphere. The term designates a person who has a Spanish-first-language ancestor, but who is himself not necessarily a Spanish speaker. Indeed, one of the major grievances voiced by Chicanos is language deprivation, which can be complete -- when Spanish was renounced in order to enter the mainstream -- or partial -- when use of Spanish was punished in the public schools. Most probably generation is involved: A Chicano seems more apt to be young than middle-aged or old. Social class is clearly a factor, since, to a careful but nonetheless unsystematic observer, most of those who identify themselves as Chicanos seem not the prosperous-successful but rather the deprived-aspiring. Exceptions to the latter are found, chiefly in educational and other governmental institutions. But socio-economic change is in process.

Perhaps the crucial factor is a certain attitude of esteem for self, language, culture, and people, coupled with a determination to work actively for Chicano welfare in all spheres. That attitude is determinant can be seen in the fact that some recent emigrants from Mexico consider themselves Chicano, but others do not. The question "What is a Chicano?"

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*Portions of the material of the present report were presented at SWALLOW III (April, 1974).

merits a much more specific answer than I can offer; the UTEP Chicano studies will, of course, aid materially in providing it. If admittedly I cannot define Chicano socially, I can perhaps help to define Chicano linguistically, on the bases of the English-language essays I am presently studying.

Each student wrote three essays, choosing one topic from each of three groups of topics, which vary in degree of abstraction. There follows the general outline of the study:

PURPOSE

1. To assess the written English-language communicative competence of undergraduate Chicanos
2. To compare Chicano competence to that of
   a. matched Anglo monolinguals
   b. a stratified sample of Anglo monolinguals

GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. Are there groups of Chicanos identifiable on the basis of written competence?
2. Which aspects of Chicano competence are traceable to a Spanish-language heritage? Which to inferior education?
3. Which aspects vary with degree of abstraction of the essay topic?

MATERIALS

1. 90 English essays written by 30 UTEP Chicanos (the V series)
2. 90 English essays written by 30 matched Anglo students
3. 90 English essays written by a stratified sample of 30 Anglo students

METHODS

Study of three kinds of phenomena by collecting data on incidence of contrast with widely accepted usage; some will mark the essays as "bad English", some "unEnglish", and some as "different English". Sample items are listed.

1. Mechanical skills
   a. Use of comma
   b. Spelling
2. Basic grammar
   a. Prepositions
   b. Form and use of verbs
   c. Morphology
3. Alternative modes of expression
   a. Use of clausal complements, in contrast to <u>for-to</u>

b. Use of indefinite one

c. Inversion of subject and verb in declarative sentence

d. Prepositional indication of indirect object, in contrast to word order indication

e. Reflexive verbs

Aside from the intrinsic interest of a description of the English of the largest linguistic minority of the country, a study of Chicano competence has direct educational interest. Despite the current increase in linguistic sensitivity on university campuses, there is, to my knowledge, relatively little objective information on specific abilities and needs. In New Mexico, for example, students are generally funneled into special programs on the basis of American College Test scores in English or on surname, neither having been proved to be the optimum classificatory system. My hope is that, if one or more groups of Chicanos can be identified linguistically on the basis of the present study, test(s) can be devised to channel the various groups into the kind of language study they are shown to need.

Although I am by no means finished with my study of the essays, my many readings of them enable me to offer a reply to the remarks on the badness of the English of Chicanos. First comes an explanation from experience in teaching international students. Some of the latter make very few errors when writing on topics which they control perfectly, i.e., autobiography, travels, personal philosophy, but their production may deteriorate markedly when they are asked to deal with topics more abstract and less familiar. Presumably, the same holds true for Chicanos. Evidence is accumulating to show that this is the case.

I had hoped to be able to demonstrate that particular contrastive elements increase in number with degree of abstraction of essay topic, which has not proved possible, for two reasons. 1) Some writers dealt with "Life in El Paso" not concretely and personally ("My Life in El Paso") but as abstractly as they did the topic "My Philosophy of Life". 2) There are relatively small numbers of instances of certain contrastive features, articles, for example. Nevertheless, if we lump all the contrastive occurrences together for all writers, then numerical increase is evident, and we might presume that an assignment asking for a discussion of the meaning of a poem might elicit yet another increase.

A far more important reason is that the judgement of badness is an example of stereotypical thinking. At a deep level, Chicano conjures up the image of Juan Diego -- illiterate, impoverished, undernourished, crossing the Rio Grande at night to work in a migrant labor camp. But we need not dwell here.

The essays under consideration show a wide variety of linguistic and intellectual ability. One writer, in his gentle pessimism, echoes Montaigne:

"I made a wonderful friend on the way to Guadalajara and though I understood him well enough, I could say very little in his language -- no matter since I say very little in any language. I thought I learned something of the culture and history of Mexico, but I think now I've forgotten both. My Spanish improved on the trip but has since fallen

into disrepair. But the memories remain . . . ." Another conveys quite well the routine of his life in El Paso by beginning with his awakening from a nightmare and concluding with his preparation for bed and another nightmare.

There are also examples of the kind of writing which teachers have always read to each other in their offices and laughed over. Figures of speech are attempted. Some are apt, others unfortunate: "I feel that some people are born with feathers and wings like eagles others are born like snakes. Those born with wings reach great heights easily, but those born like snakes can reach the same high mountain." Some essays consist chiefly of short, simple sentences; other writers demonstrate skillful compacting of many such sentences. "My favorite pastimes are undoubtedly sports, golf being the one to which I am most devoted. The object of this game is to hit a small, white ball a required distance, avoiding certain obstacles intended to prevent you from knocking the ball in an imbedded cup in the fewest strokes possible." Some can write only four or five truncated sentences, but others write over 300 words per topic. It appears likely that there will be more significant differences within the Chicano group than among Chicanos and other linguistic groups of the Southwest.

As for my preliminary assessment of the written communicative competence of Chicanos writing in English: what I have read nearly always conveys a message to me. None of the features I am studying interferes with the message, but many of them transmit the signal "bad English" or "nonEnglish". What message interference I encounter is in word choice: "the daily encounter with the realities of life can be an obstacle and problem ameliorative process due to man's need to order his life and his environment . . . . When man realizes that he has given rise to a new set of problems in his quest to better himself and his fellowman, he has the propensity to look askance from the negative aspects that often attend to these problems." It remains to be seen whether this is just another passage in collegese, or whether there is a specifically Chicano dimension.

COMMAS. No one who has been an editor or taught what in the United States is called composition can approach the subject of comma use with anything like certainty, because of questions of style and usage. I have been extremely generous in my categorizations of errors and have accepted such things as "I was so tired, I went to bed," even though I would not write them myself. The following represent what I judge to be mistakes according to current standards of acceptability.

Comma splice. "I thoroughly enjoyed it, it gave me a change to learn . . . ." 15 instances.

Missing comma in setoff element. "The mountains and canyons notwithstanding their wild appearance which seems to reject all human beings, are fertile . . . ." 4 instances.

Element mistakenly setoff. "I, then, became involved in almost every activity at school." (Here, then means next.) 1 instance.

Element not setoff. "The pace of living in Mexico although somehow

faster than in El Paso is still . . . ." 7 instances.

Semicolon for Comma. ". . . by one-thirty in the morning; the latest" 6 instances.

Comma missing after year or state. ". . . and was born in El Paso, Texas November 19, 1948" 1 instance.

Interruption of clause or phrase. "His poetry is not all on love themes for, he is also critical of . . . ." 5 instances.

Comma missing in series of three. "I do not love or seek money in any way shape or form . . . ." 3 instances.

Appositive not set off. "Philosophy in life is this that a person is like a flour." 1 instance.

Comma and conjunction in series of two. ". . . these people manage to cross to the United States, with either a local passport, or to establish residence". 2 instances.

Comma instead of conjunction in series of two. "My favorite postimes are playing quitar, piano . . . ." 3 instances.

Adjectives requiring comma separation. "I never try to may [make] the wealthy well educated person any more important . . . ." 1 instance.

Nonrestrictive modifier not setoff. ". . . to Saint Patrick's where I finished my elementary schooling". 7 instances.

Comma separating main sentence elements. Subject and predicate. "What I like about the life there, is that . . . ." 1 instance. Main verb and direct object. ". . . I didn't pick up, but a few words in English . . . ." 4 instances. Other. ". . . I could execute what they're doing, three times faster than they" 2 instances.

RUNON SENTENCES. ". . . at times I'm too shy to talk that's why I don't meet . . . ." 7 instances.

FRAGMENTS. "Time for the young to become old". 9 instances.

SPELLING. Orthographical errors are a distinguishing mark of poor education, and thus in this area it will be easiest to show its effects. It must be remembered that some of these Chicanos are not Spanish speakers, and most were educated in Texas, but to give interference its due, I have attributed errors to interference of a written Spanish cognate or to Spanish phonology wherever possible.

Cognate interference. "dilema" 19 instances.

Spanish pronunciation interference. "this [these] trips" 6 instances.

Spanish spelling rule. "dollares" 3 instances.

The following types appear not to be interference based.

English pronunciation interference. "bachlor" 5 instances.

Letter missing. "benefical" 6 instances.

Letter substitution. "quitar" 3 instances.

Apparent confusion with other word. "loose" (for lose) 4 instances.

Letters out of order. "desoris" (for desires) 3 instances.

Letter added. "elclipse" 5 instances.

Unclassifiable. 3 instances.

Small word substitution. "a" (for I) 11 instances.

Homonyms. "too" (for to) 19 instances.

Wrong choice within the English system. "expencive" 36 instances.

The total number of errors counted is 179, of which the maximum number attributed to interference is 28, or 15. 7%.

SEGMENTATION ERRORS. As one word. "eventhough" 12 instances.

As two words. "out look" 10 instances.

Misuse of hyphens. "with-out" 5 instances.

VERB SYSTEM. Shall future. ". . . an experience I shall never forget." 2 instances.

Habitual will. "I'll then go to school around 8:30 . . . ." 8 instances.

Superfluous will. "I hope that the day will come in which we will all appreciate life . . . ." I instance.

Atypical conditional sentence. "The student . . . can make it if he would study all he can in his spare time." 2 instances.

Auxiliary missing. "By five o'clock I heading home . . .." I instance.

Agreement. Singular subject. "It grow faster than . . . ." 7 instances. Plural subject. "My aims in life is to be happy." 3 instances.

Echoes of Spanish subjunctive. Acceptable. ". . . since it is not sufficient that a woman be entirely dedicated to her family." 5 instances. Unacceptable. "My aims are that I graduate from college . . . ." 3 instances.

Unmotivated tense shift. ". . . restaurateurs who charged too much when they found we are tourists . . . ." 1 instance.

Wrong verbal complement. ". . . help studenis learn and enjoy learn." 5 instances.

Present instead of unreal past. "It's time the young people are rebelling against . . . ." 1 instance.

SINGULAR FOR PLURAL NOUN. "I believe there are other disadvantage . . . ." 3 instances.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS. Wrong choice. ". . . much easier than El Paso's who still shows . . . ." 3 instances.

SUBJECT OMISSION. ". . . and the rest of the day is too hot to go outdoors." 1 instance. (It is questionable whether this is acceptable as it stands. One reader viewed it as an error, and I myself prefer it's for is.)

PREPOSITIONS. Missing. "a lot sunshine" 5 instances.

Superfluous. ". . . the negative aspects that often attend to these problems." 7 instances.

Incorrect choice. "accustomed of going" 5 instances.

REFLEXIVE VERBS. Acceptable. ". . . his quest to better himself . . ." 16 instances.

Unacceptable. "Let us confront ourselves with the realities . . . ." 1 instance.

STYLISTIC INVERSIONS. Subject and verb. "Not until you've given yourself the pleasure of listening to music, either on disc or tape, over a system selected especially by you will you know what high fidelity is." 5 instances.

Direct object. "This pastime I enjoyed most when I was younger." 2 instances.

RELATIVE CLAUSES BEGINNING WITH PREPOSITION. "This was the first course in which I could actually apply . . . ." 3 instances. The following example is analogous: ". . . the deprivation of the Indian . . . . is to what may be attributed his lamentable existence."

PERSONAL INDIRECT OBJECT INDICATED PREPOSITIONALLY. For. ". . . to offer programs for the kids." 4 instances.

To. "The system also presents to the people two trains of thoughts . . ." 2 instances.

If we look at some phenomena which can be called mistakes, there appear to be four groups of writers in the V series. I charted comma/spelling errors against verb/noun number-errors with the following results:

Group	Verb/Noun Errors	Spelling, etc.	Number of Writers
I	0	2	2
II	0	4-13	12
III	1-2	4-22	14
IV	5-8	14-17	2

The grouping is offered merely as tentative, for the addition of other kinds of factors, for example, items which make the writing sound different, if not incorrect, may result in further groupings.

As a kind of check of whether the samples stratified on the basis of sex, age, socioeconomic status and so on resulted in a linguistically stratified sampling, I checked the type I essays of the AC series of 26 writers (an incomplete sample) against the V series. These 26 writers made 69 mistakes of the kind listed in the chart above. The 30 V writers should have made 79.6 at the same rate. Their actual total, 84, puts the number of errors in approximately the same range.

This is as far as I have gotten. The next study I propose to undertake is of substitute words to see whether the usage of Chicanos differs from that of monolingual speakers of English. Consider the following passage: "I also believe a person should do all he can to help other people throughout his lifetime. This gives worth and meaning to one's life and this is very necessary to every person. What an individual does to help others is not important. Many persons have many different ideas about how to help others. What is important is that people do have some kind of sense of the need to help others and then to do it. I believe that the most important way of helping others is by helping them learn and helping them achieve all they want to achieve. This is why I want to teach. I believe that a teacher can help others in a very valuable way. I would especially like to teach in a high school and preferably students of Mexican extraction. This is my background and I believe that because of this I can help students learn and enjoy learning. I feel that I know what they need to be able to learn and to achieve their goal." Repetition of a word or phrase from one sentence to another serves rhetorical functions such as linking, emphasis, etc. The second repetition, however, may indicate lack of synonyms or reluctance to use substitute words. My questions at the moment are finding a suitable framework to study this phenomenon and seeing whether it also occurs in the writing of monolinguals.[*]

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[*]I owe to my discussant at the conference, Professor Daniel Negrete Cárdenas of the California State University at Long Beach, two valuable insights: (1) Before we can totally reject the eagle-snake similes, we must know what the writer intended: (2) We must remember that the sample is extremely biased, and in order to plan for future years, we must also have information on Chicanos who are not presently being admitted to universities.

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Huberto Molina

The SWRL English Language and Concepts Program for Spanish-Speaking Children: 1971-1972 Tryout

THE PROGRAM

Program Goals: Primary goals of the SWRL English Language and Concepts Program for Spanish-Speaking Children (LCS) are to teach Spanish-speaking children to communicate effectively in oral English language skills. An increasing amount of attention is given to the development of skills that prepare the children for future reading and writing in the subject matter areas of mathematics, science, and social studies.

Program Procedures: The Program consists of 225 daily lessons and accompanying follow-up materials. Organization of the Program into 15-lesson units allows for planning flexibility. At the end of each unit an assessment and review lesson is presented. Approximately 50 minutes of instruction are included in each lesson.

Classroom instruction centers on communication between teacher and learner and between learner and learner, with provision for assessment and review. Further practice is provided either by student tutors or adult aides on a one-to-one basis, or by the teacher on a small-group basis, at the teacher's option.

Language is used in a setting that gives the pupil many opportunities to use vocabulary items that present phonological problems. The sequence of lessons emphasizes the interrelationships of syntactical structures. Each objective is presented in the context of previously-learned material.

Materials Provided:

1. A Placement Aid helps determine which pupils will profit from the Program. This test is also used as a guide for placement of students within the Program.

2. Individual Lesson Cards state the language skills being taught and the teaching procedures to be used. Each lesson also contains a list of needed materials and complete, self-directed teacher, learner, and optional materials.

3. Practice Exercises are the basic materials to be used in conducting the LCS follow-up practice. They are designed to facilitate easy use by a tutor or aid in working with individual students or small groups of children, and emphasize the newly-learned language skills.

4. The Assessment Cards are used at the end of each 15-lesson unit to check the proficiency of each pupil to comprehend

and produce the language structures included in the unit. Review Cards provide additional practice if required.

5. An End of Program Test is provided to evaluate the achievement level of each child in the English language and concept skills presented in the Program.

6. Teacher and tutor-aid Training Materials accompany the LCS Program. These include a ten minute movie, film strips, and tapes that serve to explain in detail the specific teaching and tutorial procedures found to be most beneficial in presenting the LCS lesson. A manual, to be used by the teacher in training either tutors or aides, provides information on scheduling and guides her through complete training sessions for both groups.

7. Concept Cards, Concept Posters and other visuals are used to present language concepts.

1971-72 TRYOUT

During the 1971-72 school year, a tryout of the LCS program was conducted involving 8 school districts, 33 schools, 43 classes, and 833 Spanish-speaking children. It was initiated in October, 1971 and terminated in June, 1972.

LCS seeks first-order outcomes of specified English language proficiency in the following areas: syntax, phonology, and lexicon. The tryout exercised, under standard school conditions, the materials and procedures of the LCS instructional system and of the accompanying teacher training system. Pupil test results, teacher comments, and pupil attendance records were used to measure system effectiveness.

TRYOUT SCOPE

Seven of the participating districts are located in Southern California and one is located in central California. The tryout schools were selected to represent various demographic situations: schools in a large Spanish speaking community, schools in the inner city, schools in pocket areas surrounded by English speaking communities, and country schools serving migrant families.

Teachers assigned children to participate in the tryout on the bases of a SWRL-developed Entry Test, a phonological rating, and their own judgment of the pupils' English language proficiency. Test score and phonological rating cut-off points were not mandated. The teacher was instructed to select only those children who clearly lacked the English language proficiency required for success in the basal reading program, using the Entry Test and phonological rating to guide the decision.

TEACHER-TRAINING PROCEDURES

The LCS teacher-training system included two types of training

sessions: one for teaching district personnel, such as supervisors, to conduct training sessions for teachers; and, one for training teachers directly. Training materials and procedures were designed for maximum exportability. Filmstrips, tapes, and printed booklets were packaged to ensure high teacher-training reliability across sessions.

Each district trainer was equipped to conduct as many teacher-training sessions as required. Ordinarily, only one or two sessions were required with a subsequent follow-up session for makeups. Teacher trainers from the participating school districts met at SWRL in October, 1971 for a two hour training session. The purpose of the session was to prepare them to use the teacher-training program to prepare teachers to present the lessons and follow-up materials. Since this was a SWRL field tryout, procedures for record-keeping and data forms to be returned to the Laboratory were also discussed.

ASSESSMENT MEASURES

Selection of Items

The response items included in the Entry and End-of-Program Tests were pre-classified into three levels of syntactic difficulty. Imperatives involving psychomotor responses, e.g., Point to a hat, were classified as Level I items; oral concept discrimination responses, e.g., Is this a book or a pencil?, were classified as Level II. Concept description items involving production of phrases and sentences were classified according to syntactic and lexical difficulty and keyed to the lesson in which they received initial emphasis: Level I items, Lesson A-21.Level II items, Lessons 22-48; and Level III items, Lessons 49-75. In addition, items were classified on the basis of math/science and social studies content. Item classifications for the Entry and End-of-Program Tests by syntactic difficulty level and concept area are presented in Table 1.

Entry Test

The Entry Test consisted of 40 items: 24 items required psychomotor responses to imperatives in standard English, and 12 more involved oral concept discrimination responses. Four items were concept description items consisting of one syntactic pattern, questioning the verb phrase, i.e., What is (noun) doing?. Teachers also rated each child's English phonological control on a 1-4 scale, with 1 indicating poor phonological control and 4 indicating considerable control.

Where the Program was initiated after the start of the school year, the teachers started with the instructional unit judged by them to be most appropriate to the needs of their students.

Unit Assessments

Following each 15 lessons, a unit assessment consisting of 10 items was individually administered to each child. The more complex items within each instructional unit were sampled to assess student unit proficiency as economically as possible. Additional review and

Table 1

Pre- and Posttest Item Sampling by Syntactic Difficulty Level and Concept Areas

Test	Concept Area	Syntactic Difficulty Level						Total	
		I		II		III			
		No. Items	Percent	No. Items	Percent	No. Items	Percent	No. Items	Percent
Entry	Math and Science	7	17.5	0	0	0	0	7	17.5
	Social	17	42.5	13	32.5	3	7.5	33	82.5
	Combined Total	24	60.0	13	32.5	3	7.5	40	100.0
End-of-Program	Math and Science	11	18.3	11	18.3	18	30.0	40	66.7
	Social	9	15.0	9	15.0	2	3.4	20	33.3
	Combined Total	20	33.3	20	33.3	20	33.4	60	100.0

Table 2

Pupils Selected for LCS Tryout Participation

Grade	Total Students Selected		Students Tested But Not Selected	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
K	308	48.9	95	37.5
1	154	24.4	60	23.7
2	39	6.2	23	9.1
3	37	5.9	18	7.1
4	22	3.5	8	3.2
5	33	5.2	8	3.2
6	30	4.8	7	2.8
ungraded	7	1.1	34	13.4
Total	630	100.0	253	100.0

instruction were provided for children not demonstrating adequate end-of-unit proficiency.

End-of-Program Test

The End-of-Program Test was administered to all children in LCS irrespective of whether they had completed all 80 lessons. Thirty-eight of the 60 items in the test required concept description responses. The Entry Test required only four concept description responses to one pattern type, while the End-of-Program Test included eight pattern types. Pattern types and examples are listed below.

Pattern	Examples
1. Questioning the subject	What's in the rectangle? Which is the heaviest one? Who is last in line?
2. Questioning the object	What does he have? What's Jose wearing? Which ones does she have?
3. Questioning the verb phrase	What is he doing?
4. Questioning the number	How many children do you see?
5. Questioning the locative prepositional phrase	Where's the coffee?
6. Yes/no questions	Is this a book? Do you see a horse?
7. Questioning the predicate adjective	What color is the book?
8. Questioning the predicate nominal	What's this?

Table 1 compares the Entry and End-of-Program Tests in terms of item distribution across content areas and syntactic difficulty levels. The Entry Test principally sampled from syntactic Levels I and II and employed only one pattern-type: questioning the verb phrase. While the Entry Test used only one syntactic pattern evoking concept description responses, the End-of-Program Test used seven patterns, in addition to the pattern used in the Entry Test. The Entry Test contained seven math/science items and the End-of-Program Test had forty math/science items. Math/science item-content is understandably more difficult since the vocabulary items are usually classroom related technical words, e.g., set, number, colors, geometric shapes, etc.

ANALYSIS OF ASSESSMENT DATA

Table 2 shows the number of pupils selected for tryout participation by grade level. Of the 883 Spanish speaking students tested, teachers selected 630 for participation in LCS. Almost half of those selected

were in kindergarten; 73.3% were from combined K-1 levels. The remaining 27% were evenly distributed across the other grade levels. Entry Test results for 18 pupils were not retrievable, thus 612 pupils were tracked through the Program.

Tables 3 and 4 show the descriptive data on Entry Test performance and the phonological rating for students selected for participation in LCS as contrasted with the students not selected. Children who were not selected for instruction attained a mean score of 34.42 on the Entry Test, 14.28 points higher than the mean raw score of those selected for LCS participation. As shown in Table 3, at each grade level the Entry Test mean score differences between selected and not selected students ranges between 11 and 26 points.

Mean Phonological Ratings for each grade are shown in Table 4. When considering students selected with those not selected, the results are similar to those obtained with the Entry Test. By and large, students who were selected by the teachers for participation in LCS were those who could most benefit from English language instruction before entering the basal reading program.

Assessment Results

Table 5 shows the descriptive data, by grade, for all LCS assessments. Mean Entry Test scores range from a low of 10.16 for the fifth graders to a high of 23.08 for the kindergarteners. A similar trend is reflected in phonological ratings: with the range from 1.20 for the sixth graders to 1.83 for the kindergarteners. Irrespective of the mean performance level on the Entry Test, all classes attained a high level of proficiency on the 60-item End-of-Program Test. The posttest mean score of 53.21 represents 89% of the total possible criterion referenced items.

Comments obtained from the teachers contributed possible explanations for the low Entry Test and high End-of-Program Test performance of the older children:

1. Some children in the upper elementary grades had entered this country recently (low average phonological scores on the Entry Test support this view). Once the children mastered the necessary English language skills, they were able to use knowledge acquired via their native language to make rapid progress in LCS.

2. LCS offers many success experiences to those children who have encountered great difficulty in the school curriculum. Older children who have experienced failure due to language difficulty reacted positively to the experiences offered by LCS.

3. Older children in the Program produced higher rates of response and were more confident than the younger children.

In addition to possible explanations mentioned by the teachers, older children were absent less than the younger children. Absentee-

Table 3

Entry Test Descriptive Data

Grade	Students Selected			Students Not Selected			Mean difference
	Number	Score Mean (1)	Standard Deviation	Number	Score Mean (2)	Standard Deviation	(2) - (1)
K	305	23.08	13.30	95	36.41	8.60	11.33
1	147	19.81	14.88	60	34.72	9.55	14.91
2	39	17.74	16.49	23	37.08	7.72	19.36
3	37	20.51	18.53	18	34.43	10.31	13.92
4	22	13.73	16.20	8	25.98	13.14	12.25
5	32	10.16	15.32	8	36.04	4.00	25.88
6	30	13.20	15.07	7	29.37	9.71	16.17
unknown	7	-	-	34	15.08	5.13	-
Total	619	20.14	14.97	253	34.42	8.19	14.28

Table 4

Phonological Rating Descriptive Data

Grade	Students Selected			Students Not Selected			Mean Difference
	Number	Mean Rating	S.D.	Number	Mean Rating	S.D.	
K	291	1.83	1.00	95	2.42	1.05	.59
1	139	1.71	.92	60	3.00	1.10	1.29
2	36	1.44	.80	23	1.21	.72	-.23
3	34	1.68	.98	18	2.60	.96	.92
4	21	1.19	.40	8	1.63	1.19	.44
5	27	1.19	.40	8	2.29	1.60	1.10
6	30	1.20	.61	7	1.00	.00	-.20
unknown	-	-	-	34	2.25	.95	-
missing data	41	-	-				
Total	619	1.69	.91	253	2.56	1.11	.87

Table 5

Descriptive Data for All LCS Assessments by Grade

Grade	Initial Assessment Measures						End-of-Program			Absence Rate			Unit 1		
	Entry Test			Phonological Rating											
	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
K	305	23.08	15.30	291	1.83	1.00	200	51.30	7.40	269	6.27	14.13	212	8.00	2.56
1	147	19.82	14.88	139	1.71	.92	85	55.08	4.39	119	3.67	9.28	110	8.85	2.06
2	39	17.74	16.49	36	1.64	.80	26	55.46	5.63	35	3.71	10.57	33	8.45	2.49
3	37	20.51	18.53	34	1.68	.98	17	53.29	6.93	33	.61	2.47	26	8.31	2.02
4	22	13.73	16.20	21	1.19	.40	10	56.40	2.22	21	.67	2.31	17	8.53	1.94
5	32	10.16	15.32	27	1.19	.40	18	56.78	3.84	26	.15	.78	22	8.36	1.94
6	30	13.20	15.07	30	1.20	.41	14	58.07	2.87	30	2.33	7.20	24	7.88	2.23
Total	612	20.30	14.95	578	1.69	.93	370	53.21	6.65	531	4.43	11.61	444	8.29	2.36
	Unit 2			Unit 3			Unit 4			Unit 5			Unit 6		
K	241	9.07	1.78	198	9.92	1.72	204	9.40	1.23	150	8.24	1.79	101	8.50	1.92
1	107	9.21	1.69	101	9.17	1.45	94	9.63	.93	85	9.22	1.26	46	9.39	.93
2	29	9.14	1.64	30	9.07	1.41	28	9.68	1.19	25	9.12	1.48	17	9.59	.71
3	24	8.17	2.33	20	8.70	1.69	19	9.05	1.84	14	8.64	1.15	4	9.00	1.41
4	14	8.93	1.27	11	9.00	1.26	13	9.38	1.12	8	9.13	1.36	8	9.63	.52
5	19	8.95	1.27	18	8.33	1.65	20	8.65	1.42	17	8.30	1.72	14	8.93	1.33
6	21	9.00	1.76	15	8.47	1.51	17	9.12	1.41	11	9.55	.82	8	9.75	.71
Total	455	9.03	1.73	393	8.94	1.61	395	9.41	1.23	290	8.63	1.64	198	8.93	1.58

ism during the Program, shown in Table 5, was greatest among kindergarteners, who averaged over six days absent with a standard deviation of 14.13 days. This is a higher mean absentee rate than that of the older children. However, Table 5 shows that irrespective of Entry Test performance and absentee rate, the mean scores on the six unit assessments were high, ranging from 8.29 (82.9%) on Unit 1 to 9.41 (94.1%) on Unit 4.

Student Participation in the Program

Table 6 shows Entry Test and phonological rating descriptive data for students by program completion category. Two things should be noted. First, the ostensible "attrition" rate reflects neither experimental mortality nor student failure. The only students not accounted for are the 31 (2.1%) with incomplete data. A large number of students, 137 (22.4%) were removed from the Program on the basis of rapid LCS progress and a judgment that they were ready to enter the schools' basal language program. Only 48 (7.8%) actually moved from the district, indicating greater demographic stability than is often alleged. Those who were absent at the time of the final test (43, or 7.0%) were reported by teachers as having actually completed LCS.

Second, the children who completed LCS, and on whom the effectiveness of the Program is based, possessed no greater (sometimes less) English language proficiency at the time of entry than those who moved from the district or those whose data were lost due to logistic vagaries. Of the 612 students, only 370 completed LCS. The table indicates that the 242 children who did not complete the Program were not significantly different from the participating students in terms of entering language proficiency, as measured by performance on the Entry Test and phonological rating.

Tracking Student Progress

The unit assessment data yield further information concerning the LCS progress of individual students. Seven "completion status" categories were established, and the status of each student was tracked throughout the six units. The unit "completion status" categories are:

1. Completed the Unit
2. Skipped the Unit
3. Absent at Time of Unit Test
4. Did Not Complete the Unit
5. Score Was Not Received for the Unit Assessment
6. Transferred Out of School
7. Returned to Regular Instruction

Table 6

ICE Entry and Phonological Test Descriptive Data

Category	Number	Entry Test Score		Phonological Rating	
		$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Completed Program	370	19.65	14.65	1.70	.89
Transferred Out of School	48	19.60	12.36	1.47	.78
Returned to Regular Instruction	137	21.64	16.84	1.76	1.04
Incomplete Data	13	25.23	11.42	2.00	1.00
Absent at Time of Final Test	43	21.12	14.10	1.90	1.10
Total for Whom Entry Test Scores were Received	612	20.23	14.99	1.69	.93

Table 8

Unit Assessment Test Descriptive Data
by Entry Test Score Ranges

Entry Test Raw Score Ranges	Assessment Raw Scores*								
	Units 1-3			Units 4-6			End-of-Program		
	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1-10	97	24.86	4.61	51	27.24	2.87	114	52.49	7.51
11-20	50	26.62	3.65	26	25.15	4.49	47	51.06	7.45
21-30	60	27.55	3.44	38	27.76	2.91	67	53.64	5.61
31-40	99	28.56	2.26	58	28.67	2.77	112	55.13	5.06
Total	306	26.86	3.88	173	26.57	3.32	340	53.39	6.55

*N's will vary as function of pupil placement and advancement procedures.

Table 7

Entry and Pronunciation Test Results by Instructional Unit Completion Status

Status	Unit 1				Unit 2				Unit 3				Unit 4			
		Entry		Pronun.		Entry		Pronun.		Entry		Pronun.		Entry		Pronun.
	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$ S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$ S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$ S.D.	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$ S.D.
1. Completed	444	18.75	14.52	1.60 .86	455	20.37	14.80	1.73 .95	393	19.74	14.60	1.70 .87	395	20.81	14.86	1.77 .97
2. Skipped	99	19.17	16.57	1.96 1.08	48	29.08	13.30	1.38 .54	55	21.45	17.02	1.90 1.30	43	15.56	14.48	1.30 .52
3. Absent	13	28.92	11.32	2.36 1.02	18	21.50	15.34	1.73 1.16	25	16.04	14.90	1.65 1.03	33	15.46	16.31	1.73 1.10
4. Did not Complete	3	33.33	11.55	1.67 .58	7	15.71	18.13	1.33 .52	19	16.89	15.33	1.75 .45	27	15.56	14.92	1.59 .51
5. No Data	8	34.61	3.20	2.25 1.03	10	30.70	8.94	2.00 1.05	10	30.70	8.94	2.00 1.05	11	29.45	9.44	2.09 1.04
6. Transferred from School	10	27.90	9.19	1.80 1.03	28	20.93	11.23	1.43 .74	37	17.76	12.22	1.38 .76	41	17.51	12.04	1.39 .74
7. Returned To Regular Instruction	35	32.11	11.61	1.80 1.10	46	28.96	13.35	1.72 .98	73	25.36	15.46	1.75 1.00	82	22.88	16.22	1.64 .94
Total*	567				538				502				489			

	Unit 5				Unit 6				End-of-Program Test			
1. Completed	290	20.52	14.55	1.76 .94	198	21.00	14.01	1.77 .94	370	19.65	14.65	1.70 .89
2. Skipped	74	17.68	15.76	1.42 .68	111	20.51	15.84	1.90 .79	6	20.00	10.49	2.00 1.41
3. Absent	18	24.56	12.41	2.06 .94	16	17.69	14.25	1.44 1.07	38	12.66	15.32	1.58 .87
4. Did not Complete	47	14.79	13.75	1.33 .48	93	16.54	14.19	1.51 .70	13	25.23	11.42	2.00 1.00
5. No Data	11	29.45	9.44	2.09 1.04	12	29.92	9.14	2.09 .81	0	-	-	- -
6. Transferred from School	42	17.83	12.08	1.39 .74	46	18.54	12.38	1.47 .91	48	19.40	12.36	1.47 .78
7. Returned To Regular Instruction	130	22.74	16.45	1.81 1.08	136	21.74	16.75	1.77 1.04	137	21.64	16.84	1.76 1.06
Total*	440				430				427			

*The Total is cumulatively adjusted to reflect the number of pupils actually in the Program, e.g., a combined 45 pupils left the District and Program during Unit 1, leaving a total 567 pupils in the Program.

Table 7 shows the number of students by completion status category and their entry language proficiency scores across all instructional units and the End-of-Program Test. Category 1, "completed," indicates that the students actually took the end-of-unit assessment. Status categories 2-5 include youngsters who did not take the end-of-unit test for the reason shown, but remained in LCS. The entries in these categories across the units indicate entries peculiar to that unit and are not cumulative. Categories 6 and 7, however, are cumulative across units because once a student falls into either of these categories he is out of the Program and will not appear in any other category in future units. For example, in category 6 ten children transferred out of school before completing Unit 1; and the number cumulated to 28 in Unit 2. The cumulative number reflecting mobility ultimately reduced the total number of children remaining in the Program to 430 by the end of Unit 6 and 427 by the End-of-Program Test.

The children who returned to regular instruction in the earlier units of LCS possessed greater entering language proficiency than those who remained. By tracking category 7 entries across units, it is apparent that children with high Entry Test scores returned to the regular instructional program early in the LCS Program. Those who did well on the Entry Test were usually grouped and as soon as practicable removed from LCS. This is supported by teacher comment. As the children progressed through the units, children with lower scores on the Entry Test begin to join the school's regular instructional program on the basis of increased English language proficiency. Children who returned to regular instruction during Unit 1 had a mean Entry Test score of 32.11 while those who returned during Unit 6 had a mean score of 21.74. Overall, the children who returned to the regular instructional program had a mean Entry Test score of 21.64 as contrasted with 19.65 for those entering and completing LCS. Corroborative data from teacher comments indicates that during initial instruction, LCS performance is highly related to the child's entering language facility. Progressively, however, LCS's effectiveness reduces the correlation and student performance becomes more independent of entering language facility; i.e., irrespective of entering English language proficiency, children perform well in LCS.

Table 8 describes how well children within specified entry score ranges performed throughout LCS "Units 1-3" shows performance on the first half of the Program and "Units 4-6" shows performance on the second half (in terms of combined unit assessments raw scores).

As children progressed through the Program, those with low scores on the Entry Test approached the performance level of the children who scored high on the Entry Test. On Units 1-3 there is a 3.68 difference between the lowest scoring group and the highest scoring group; on Units 4-6 there is only a 1.43 difference.

In sum, LCS as used in the tryout accomplished the prespecified instructional objectives at a high level of proficiency. The Program proved manageable by teachers and remarkably robust under a wide range of school and classroom conditions.

Philip Grundlehner

PLATO: German Reading, English as a Second Language, and Bilingual Education

Introduction

Over the past two years the departments of German and Teaching of English as a Second Language (TESL) have been developing several computer-assisted programs to enhance their instructional capabilities at the University of Illinois. In addition, TESL is currently developing a program for bilingual education for Chicano students in cooperation with the William J. Dawson Adult Learning Skill Center of the City Colleges of Chicago. PLATO, an acronym for Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations, utilizes a CDC 6000 series computer which can accommodate as many as 6000 students simultaneously while allowing each student to work and advance through the material at his own pace. In a recent issue of System, Robert Ariew of the University of Illinois described the technical aspects and instructional features of PLATO as well as some programs developed by the French Department.[1] It is also important, however, to understand the role of the teacher and student in utilizing PLATO to its full potential as well as describe through example some programs which illustrate this potential. The German Reading Program and several TESL lessons have been selected as examples of the innovative instructional capabilities of the PLATO system. Both offer the teacher a unique opportunity in language presentation and the student an individualized method of language acquisition.

The Role of the Teacher

A distinctive feature of PLATO is the simplicity with which the teacher may relate to the computer. Lessons may be written and programmed by the teachers themselves in a simplified computer language called "TUTOR" which consists of about one hundred "commands" for tailoring each lesson writing can be done with less than ten of these commands, and thus PLATO programming can be learned and utilized in only a few hours by a teacher with no previous knowledge or experience in computer programming. If desired, a teacher may also use the programs of other teachers in other languages with his own material. For example, a more complicated program such as the German Reading Program might be utilized by substituting a French or English text depending on the teaching objective. As programs on PLATO proliferate, increasingly less time will be required by the teacher to prepare and make use of PLATO lessons for specific applications. Thus the German Department at the Urbana-Champaign campus of the University of Illinois may take advantage of a program written at the Chicago Circle campus by merely inserting its own materials into the already prepared program.

Student and Teacher

The PLATO system is essentially a teaching aid. The computer allows a teacher to free himself from the task of correcting exercises and drills in class and thus devote his energies to more important work such as im-

proving pronunciation and promoting conversation. PLATO will assist each student in strengthening his individual weak points by automatically channeling him into review areas where he has demonstrated inadequate performance. Thus, a student who misses thirty per cent of his verb conjugations in a PLATO drill might be branched back automatically to a supplementary remedial exercise with more detailed explanation and illustration. This would supply specific practice for the principles which the machine has determined the student does not understand. For example, he may be sent to a detailed exercise on the construction of past tense strong verbs, expressions of time and place, or adverbs of frequency. After mastering this particular information, he will then be permitted to rejoin the former lesson to attempt a better score. A teacher may request a computer print-out of each student's performance and thus keep an accurate record of all difficulties and improvements. He may then choose to emphasize several points in the class period while realizing other points have been adequately mastered by the majority of the class on PLATO. The student has access to PLATO eight hours a day and thus a slower or extra-zealous student has the option to return as often as needed to maintain or accelerate his pace. It is in this capacity as an individual tutor that PLATO has its greatest value. The computer does not take the place of the teacher, but functions to increase his instructional resources.

Some Misconceptions

It is widely accepted that PLATO can be a valuable means to creative teaching strategies. However, there is also an understandable amount of skepticism on the part of many educators as to the alleged deficiencies of computer-aided instruction. Thus it would be valuable to discuss several false notions which have arisen regarding PLATO as well as other computer-based education systems. Professors Alpert and Bitzer, the inventors of PLATO, have described many misconceptions regarding the value of computers in teaching.[2] The four most salient of these misconceptions are:

Misconception 1: Computer-based education is synonymous with programmed instruction. The computer enables a student to utilize a far more sophisticated machinery than the basic tutorial logic which most programmed instruction will allow. He may control his own learning process and jump back or forward as often as he wants according to his own level of achievement. The computer will automatically emphasize what a student does not know and ignore that which he has already mastered.

Misconception 2: The program cannot anticipate all conceivable student responses: There are currently several PLATO programs which offer a wide latitude of answers which will be judged correct without sacrificing specificity. There are routines to judge open-ended verbal responses and to distinguish between conceptual errors and spelling difficulties.

Misconception 3: Computer-based instruction does not develop critical thinking: On the contrary, computer-based instruction demands individual attention and response and is therefore more effective than the classroom approach. Computer-based instruction has often been found more effective than standard educational procedures in many learning situa-

tions that call for judgment, interpretation of complex problems and evaluation by students of the validity of their conjectures.

Misconception 4: The computer will replace the teacher: It is clear that the teacher will always have the advantage in speaking with students, thereby improving their diction and pronunciation. The computer should be regarded as a tool to stimulate and arouse interest, much as the teacher might use a textbook or a language laboratory.

Programs at Illinois

There are presently several hundred programs being utilized by practically all departments at the University of Illinois. PLATO has become in many cases an indispensable component in course instruction. The three programs described below, the German Reading Program, the TESL English Program, and the TESL Bilingual Program are three of the most innovative lessons in their ability to motivate students individually without the aid of a teacher. Although they are now used as supplementary material to elementary language courses, all could conveivably be utilized by a student in place of a course which he either does not have the time to take formally or in reviewing material for a proficiency examination.

1. The German Reading Program: This is a series of thirty-five texts of approximately 400 words each developed by Professor James W. Marchand. It has been used mainly for graduate reading courses, but has also been employed in a first semester undergraduate course for those specifically interested in learning to read German. As the student progresses, he develops his vocabulary by encountering similar root words in different compounds and various forms. The passages increase in grammatical complexity as the student advances. After requesting "German Reading Program", the student may start at any passage commensurate with his level of ability. This enables a more talented student to advance more quickly if he so desires. The student then selects either of two modes for each reading passage:

a) Inquiry Mode: This allows the student to ask the meaning of a word he does not know. He is not given the full answer on his first inquiry, but is provided with a series of progressively more detailed clues which direct him to establish word meanings from roots he already knows.

EXAMPLE: The following text appears on the display panel:
Prof. Dr. Erich Schmidt ist Wissenschaftler (01). Er interessiert sich für (02) Chemie. Er ist Chemiker. Prof. Dr. Marchand ist Sprachwissenschaftler (03). Er interessiert sich für die Linguistik. Er ist Linguist. Ein Wissenschaftler interessiert sich für die Wissenschaft. Ein Naturwissenschaftler (04) betreibt (05) Naturwissenschaft (Chemie, Physik,usw.); ein Biolog ist auch Naturwissenschaftler, aber er interessiert sich für Lebewesen (06). Die Biologie ist eine Lebenswissenschaft. The student merely presses the number of the clue he wants to see. Clue "a" of that number will automatically appear, and subsequent clues are provided by pressing "b" and "c". Words with less than three clues are signified by an asterisk. Thus the student will see the following clues for the above passage:

(01) Wissenschaftler: CLUE (01a): Wissen = knowledge CLUE (01b): Wissenschaftler = ein Mann des Wissens CLUE (01c): learned man, scholar, scientist.

(02) sich interessieren fur: CLUE (02a): What does it look like? CLUE (02b): Think cognate! CLUE (02c): "interests himself for"; interested in:
(03) Sprachwissenschaftler: CLUE (03a): Die Sprache = speech, language CLUE (03b): Der Wissenschafter = ? CLUE (03c): How can you forget so soon? Press Clue 1 again!

(04) Naturwissenschaftler: CLUE (04b): natur "

(05) betreibt: CLUE (05a): "Betreiben" is related to "drive". CLUE (05b): pursues, does "

(06) Lebewesen: CLUE (06a): leben = to live CLUE (06b): wesen = to be; Wesen = essence CLUE (06c): living things

a) Pacing Mode: The pacing mode allows the student to establish his own speed in reading the text by gradually accelerating the appearance of lines. Hu thus forces himself to read faster as he becomes more skillful with vocabulary and sentence structure.

EXAMPLE: Einstein war ein beruhmter Forscher auf dem Gebiet der Mathematik und der Physik. Die mathematische Forschung war sein Lieblingsgebiet. Er liebte auch die Physik, aber die Mathematik war seine erste Liebe.
At first the student will read this sentence slowly--it might require twelve to fifteen seconds--but as he becomes accustomed to the structure and vocabulary he will be able to force himself to read faster. Thus he might set the pacer mechanism to five or six seconds per line. This method encourages quick comprehension where the student is not permitted to stop and look up each work. He is presented with additional vocabulary in subsequent reading passages to retain the root words he has already learned. He may at any time return to the inquiry mode by pressing the appropriate button. If he requests a definition clue too frequently, the computer is programmed to insult him jokingly by name for not recognizing the word a second or third time.

Each reading passage is accompanied by a set of multiple choice questions which tests the student's comprehension and vocabulary understanding. Although the results of these tests are available to the instructor on a final computer print-out, they are intended primarily as a self-test for the student. The teacher, of course, has the option of construction other testing devices which he may use specifically for his own students.

2. Teaching of English as a Second Language: Professor Thomas Buckingham of TESL has developed a series of sixteen lessons, each consisting of four to six parts, drilling foreign students in all aspects of the English language. PLATO is used to enhance classroom instruction and allow students to develop their English at their own pace. They attend the PLATO laboratory one out of the three class hours per seek, a schedule which substantially reduces teaching load for the instructor. Psychologically it is beneficial in that a student need not become inhibited in learning English as he might in a conventional classroom setting. A private dialogue is established between computer and student, and he feels no undue pressure from his teacher or his peers.

An example of this program will illustrate its value. After requesting the program, the student sees the following on the terminal's display panel:

Lesson 1: Practice using conjunctions, expressions of time and place, and the simple present forms of verbs. Choose one of the following:

1. Conjunctions

2. Short Responses

3. Articles and Prepositions

4. Question Writing

5. Sentence Writing

The parts of each lesson are of increasing difficulty. The student presses the number corresponding to his interest or level of achievement. If he presses 1, for example, the following will be presented on his screen: Complete the sentence by filling in the blank with one of the following words: and, but, too. 1. Al speaks French _____ Danish. The student's response is simple and straightforward; if he provides the wrong answer, a "no" will flash on the screen and he must provide a correct response before he is permitted to continue. Any question he misses will be recycled at the end of each section to assure its mastery.

If the student chooses part 4, he will see the following: Based on information in the first sentence, provide a question for the response seen in the third sentence.

1. Joe isn't married.

2. Question: _____?

3. Answer.No, he isn't.

The student has little choice but to form a specific grammatical sentence forming the question: "Is Joe married?" Again, any erros he makes in this series of fifteen questions must be corrected immediately before he goes on and are written again at the end of the sequence. If he is unable to provide an answer, he may see the answer by pressing a designated key.

Part 5 consists of a series of verbal cues from which the student must formulate a sentence. He supplies his own prepositions to make the sentence complete. For example, he views the following words on the display panel: Bob/listen/radio/noon. This lesson not only requires the student to conjugate the verb "listen" but also supply the prepositions "to" and "at": "Bob listens to the radio at noon." This and similar exercises thus test various grammatical applications in a single exercise.

This program emphasizes advancement through drill patterns and increasing difficulty. At the end of sixteen lessons, the student is able to form longer sentences and paragraphs with some degree of sophistication.

3. Bilingual Education: Professor Buckingham is also currently developing a PLATO program for bilingual education in cooperation with the William J. Dawson Adult Learning Skill Center of the City Colleges of Chicago. This series of lessons, called "Combining", is primarily intended for Chicano university students in Chicago, and will considerably enhance the present conventional course structure. It emphasizes acquisition of basic English language skills through recognizing and combining various grammatical components.

The first lesson asks the student to identify good sentences and bad sentences, thus determining his level of comprehension before channeling him into appropriate sub-lessons. Viewing each sentence on the screen, he presses either "n" (not a sentence) or "s" (sentence). If the student chooses a wrong answer, an explanation automatically appears clarifying why his choice is incorrect. In all explanation, he is always addressed by name, adding to the individualized nature of the program. For example, a student Bob might see the following:

PLATO: Bill and his sister Mary

STUDENT: S

PLATO: I'm sorry, Bob, that's wrong. I'm talking about Bill and Mary, but what about them? A verb is missing. It is NOT a sentence.
A counter electronically keeps track of Bob's incorrect responses. He must repeat sentences where he has made an error.

If the student misses three or more of the above sentences (out of fifteen), he is automatically branched to a remedial section where he reviews subjects, verbs, and objects. In the verb section, for example, he might see the following:

PLATO: Is this a sentence? I the door.

If the student mistakenly answers that it is indeed a sentence, PLATO will reply:
"NO! I WHAT the door? I must DO something to the door. Another important part of the sentence is missing--the verb. A verb expresses action." PLATO goes on to provide examples of verbs in this sentence, each verb flashing on the display panel for two seconds:

PLATO: I (hit, broke, opened, locked, closed) the door.

After the student masters these grammatical components he must drill himself by separating additional sentences into several parts. On the screen he sees the following diagram:

PLATO:

	Subject	Verb	Object
N/S			

I bowl every day.

He must first press "n" or "s" depending upon whether the sentence is complete or a fragment. He then types in the components requested and an "x" if the component is not present in the drill sentence. For example, he would answer the above sentence:

STUDENT:

	Subject	Verb	Object
S	I	bowl	x

If the student writes an incorrect response, for example if he writes in "every day" for "object", PLATO will automatically give him an explanation of why "every day" cannot be an object. If he fails to respond correctly to 75% of these sentences, there are still further

remedial drills which provide more specific aid. The advantage of his program is that it enables the student to use the knowledge he has already gained as a basis for further learning; if he proves weak in one or more areas, he will be sent to practice drills and explanatory material specific for his individual needs. PLATO is able to recognize that not all students will be at the same level, have the same difficulties, or progress at the same rate.

Student Opinion and Advantages of PLATO

Student reaction to these computer-assisted courses has been most favorable. Although participation is still on a voluntary basis, over 80% of the students have used PLATO regularly. As more terminals become available in 1974 and 1975 (there are currently 34 assigned to languages), even greater participation is anticipated. Perhaps the most optimistic opinion of the system is reflected in the continually high ratings given to PLATO in teh annual student evaluation of courses. The results of additional student opinion surveys, involving written evaluations as well as casual comments, are summarized as follows:

1) Students enjoy the individualized aspect of computerized learning. It speaks to them by name, comments on their specific mistakes, teases them about wrong answers, and channels them into other exercises and passages depending upon their performance.

2) The game aspect is appreciated. They find "playing" with the language both entertaining and motivating. This method absorbs their attention and encourages total involvement.

3) They do not feel that they are constantly being graded by the instructor. They can do the self-test exercises and make mistakes without feeling in competition with fellow class members.

4) They can proceed in the course according to their own pace and exert considerable choice in selection of alternative lessons.

5) They feel that such automated remedial help is valuable in the elementary stages of language learning.

6) Graduate students can work independently to advance their reading skills.

Many hav

Many have been able to pass the ETS examination in German after only one semester's work with PLATO. Foreign students find that the TESL programs accelerate their understanding and usage of English considerably.

Overcoming Problems

Typing: One of the first fears a teacher has when presenting his student to PLATO is that the inability to type on the keyset will impair a student's use of the machine. This is indeed a problem at first, perhaps the initial one or two days, but such fears are quickly allayed. Even non-typers quickly accustom themselves to communicating with the machine through the keyset and the evidence of student polls affirms that typing presents no problem or hindrance in learning the material. In the future the use of the touch panel will also largely offest the tedious process of typing: the student will only have to touch a point on the display panel itself to choose his answer, move words to various

positions, or have his response judged.

Cost: A major advantage of the PLATO system is its relatively low cost of operation. Other promising computer-based education systems in American have been received enthusiastically by educators in past years but have perished as a result of forbidding costs. Economics has concerned PLATO inventors since the inception of their project in 1959, and PLATO has now to some extent obviated the once prohibitive economics of the system. Installation of several PLATO terminals now amounts to less than the installation costs of a good language laboratory. PLATO terminals, once they are produced in quantity, will cost as little as $1800 each and between thirty and fifty cents per student per terminal hour, a figure which compares favorably to the lowest instructional costs at colleges and universities.

Acceptance: The PLATO user is often appalled at the skepticism which the computer arouses in his colleagues. It is a new concept in teaching, and therefore this skepticism is understandable and manifests a healthy attitude. Teachers have heard that the machine, in this age of automation, will replace their job. But experience has proved that once a teacher has seen and worked with PLATO, he acknowledges its value and is throughly willing to accept its aid.

PLATO In the Future

The implications of PLATO on the teaching of German and English are promising. Although it is still early for detailed studies regarding the success of computer-aided instruction, the positive results gained from German and TESL programs indicate an optimistic and growing trend in the future decade. Such optimism is reflected in the increasing number of American and Canadian universities which have purchased PLATO terminals and have shown interest in developing their own language programs. This development of course adds to the library of lessons available to all users of the PLATO network, since each institution would be able to take advantage of lessons written by others. Some current owners of PLATO terminals include the University of Indiana, Iowa State University, University of Iowa, University of California (Santa Barbara), University of Waterloo, University of Toronto, Florida State University, Northwestern University, Purdue University, University of Arizona, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and several of the Illinois state universities. But PLATO's future is not entirely in the hands of the universities. An exciting prospect which has already been realized experimentally is the use of PLATO in elementary and secondary schools. Especially there, given today's rising costs of education, exists the opportunity for an inexpensive and individualized method of learning.

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Footnotes

1) Robert Ariew, "Teaching French on PLATO IV," System, 2(January, 1974) 1, 1 - 7.

2) D. Alpert and D.L. Bitzer, "Advances in Computer-based Education," Science, 167 (March, 1970), 1584.

Helen Aron

Problems and Suggested Solutions in the Establishment of an English to Speakers of Other Languages Program at an American Community College

About two years ago Union College in Cranford, New Jersey, a two-year college with an enrollment of about 3,800 full-time and part-time students, began the systematic establishment of an English to Speakers of Other Languages program. We were faced with many areas of difficulty and have found some workable solutions, which I offer in this paper.

We began by searching for a placement test which would enable us to divide the incoming students into homogeneous ability groups or levels. The tests readily available were either much too difficult for any except the most advanced students or too time-consuming to grade. We finally devised an examination of our own, modeled after the format used by the English Language Branch of the Defense Language Institute.

The original testing period, which occurred two weeks prior to the beginning of the semester, was soon found to be insufficient. Members of the community presented themselves for the purpose of enrolling in classes well into the first week of the term. Therefore, we now run testing sessions at the beginning of both the first and second weeks of classes in order to accommodate all new students. After the second week, however, no additional students are admitted. We feel that after this time an incoming weak student will have missed enough work to be doomed to failure from the onset; there is also the risk that review for the benefit of the late entrant could impede the progress of the class as a whole.

The ESOL program at Union College consists of four levels: elementary, intermediate, high intermediate, and advanced. Upon taking the placement test, a new student is assigned to one of these levels. Once he passes the course to which he has been assigned, the student continues to the next level. The placement test is taken only when a student enters our program and not again thereafter.

When designing the syllabi for the four levels, we had very diverse objectives to meet because of the dissimilarity of backgrounds among our students. The student population falls into three general areas: (1.) Group One consists of members of the local community with or without a completed high school education in their own countries. These people, the largest segment of our enrollment, wish to learn sufficient English to function in stores, to understand television programs, to fill out job applications, etc. (2) Group Two encompasses foreign students and recent residents in the U.S. who are seeking a college degree; these students wish to learn English well enough so that they can function at the college level; (3.) Group Three includes members of the community with university degrees earned in their native countries.

They want to be able to read the New York Times, to present themselves well enough in English to find a position in their professions, to write documents required in their fields, etc.

At first glance it would seem impossible to serve such diverse needs. In actuality we have found that we are able to provide something for everyone within our four levels. The elementary and intermediate levels develop listening and speaking skills. They are primarily conversation courses, though some reading and writing is required at each meeting. These two levels teach exactly what Group One (mentioned above) is looking for, while Groups Two and Three recognize that they need this work as a background for more difficult language learning areas. The high intermediate level is at present the terminal course for most students with no interest in college level work. In the high intermediate course, though there is guided conversation at every session, the emphasis shifts to reading, structure, and sentence writing (as distinguished from composition writing). Whereas the elementary, intermediate, and high intermediate courses are each completed in one semester, the advanced course covers two semesters. It is a college composition course emphasizing grammar and writing (of paragraphs and compositions). This level is designed for Groups Two and Three of the student population. Successful completion of the advanced level ESOL classes exempts a Union College student from the first semester of Freshman English.

We have found that the standard college grades ranging from A to F are impossible to assign at any except the advanced level. What distinguishes a B- student in oral-aural ability from a C+ student? Thus we issue only two possible grades in all except our advanced level: Pass or Fail.

Tuition is an area of continuing controversy. The standard price charged for tuition and fees is too costly for most members of Groups One and Three. People who do not have a command of the language of the country in which they reside are by definition normally of very limited means because they can get only lower-paying jobs. This is a very simple concept but one that college administrations find difficult to cope with. In our school at least half of the students currently enrolled in the ESOL program could not attend if full tuition and fees were imposed; since most are part-time students, they are ineligible for significant amounts of scholarship money. Happily, at Union College a reduced price is charged for ESOL courses.

The number of class meetings per week also poses a dilemma. Perhaps class sessions for two hours per day five days a week would be ideal; this would make the ESOL program a type of institute within the college. One must be practical, however. The majority of ESOL students drawn to the junior college are adults with full-time jobs and with family responsibilities. They cannot afford the time and money involved with going to school ten hours per week. Students in Group Two who are taking college courses in addition to ESOL could probably not fit a class that meets daily into their academic schedules. Also the college machinery is set up for courses to be three credit hours and to meet for the equivalent of three periods per week; to deviate from the system would cause all the havoc encountered whenever one wants to vary from an established order.

How then does one compensate for the limited amount of time a student spends in class each semester? One remedy is to offer additional courses that that a non-native student may take concomitant with his ESOL course. For example, we offer (1.) a course in developmental reading and vocabulary building and (2.) a course in the sound system of American English. Both classes are open to all except elementary non-native students. These two courses can also serve to bring students into the program who are fearful of the testing required for the regular ESOL classes. Though not a formal class, we also have English conversation sessions open to elementary and intermediate students. This has been an excellent opportunity to bring interested American volunteers from the local community into the program. The volunteers meet once or twice a week with a small group of students at a mutually convenient time to have English conversation on any topic they wish. Further, a language laboratory where a student can listen to ESOL tapes and record his own voice for comparison with a master is essential for a comprehensive program. Finally, two other offerings, which we hope to incorporate into our curriculum soon, are suggested. One is an informal lecture and discussion series on American culture covering topics ranging from immigration laws to social customs; the other is a course in controlled composition for the Group One student who has completed the high intermediate course but wants more practice in non-college-oriented writing.

The reader will have noticed that no mention has been made of textbooks. Textbook selection is a predicament for which we have no simple solution; instead, we are very eclectic, using texts from a number of series and publishers. In general, we have found that U.S. publishing houses print excellent texts primarily for the high intermediate and advanced levels (reading, grammar, writing, controlled composition). British publishers print very fine books for use in the lower levels. However, the problem of adapting British English for use in the United States forces the teacher to make so many changes in some books that the students lose faith in their texts.

Faculty members should meet the following criteria: academic qualifications in ESOL, interest in students, vivacious personality, and experience with teaching adults. Employing faculty members who are conversant in the foreign language spoken by the majority of students is often a detriment rather than an asset. Instead of creating a situation wherein the students must learn English in order to communicate, the teacher often uses class time to practice his skill in the foreign language or to explain points that he feels the students do not understand by explaining in their language. The excuse used is that this method will save time, but in fact the student is robbed of the opportunity to develop skill at concentrating on aural English and at figuring out what has been said from context clues.

The areas of difficulty encountered in establishing a viable ESOL curriculum leads me to recommend a community college program which places students into a series of homogeneous levels through placement testing. The number of levels should be sufficient to meet the needs of diverse types of students. The testing and admissions period must be sufficiently long and free from rigidity to allow as many new students as possible to enroll. Both the grading system and the tuition must be realistic. What one cannot offer in length by have ten hours of ESOL per week, one

has to remedy with breadth by offering related courses which the non-native student can take concurrent with his ESOL course.

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